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NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
OF THE UNITED STATES

Proceedings

OF THE

SIXTY-FOURTH ANNUAL MEETING

HELD AT

PHILADELPHIA, PENNSYLVANIA

JUNE 27—JULY 2, 1926

VOLUME 64

The National Education Association
1201 Sixteenth Street N. W.
Washington, D. C.

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MEMBERSHIP FEES AND PUBLICATIONS OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION AND ITS VARIOUS DEPARTMENTS

The National Education Association has three classes of membership:

1. The \$2 membership entitles one to all the privileges of membership and to receive *The Journal of the National Education Association* for one year. (9 issues.)
2. The \$5 membership entitles one to all the privileges of membership and to receive for one year (a) *The Journal of the National Education Association*; (b) The Annual Volume of Addresses and Proceedings; (c) The Research Bulletin; (d) Occasional bulletins and reports.
3. The \$100 life membership, which entitles one to the publications and privileges of the \$5 membership for life.

Several departments of the National Education Association have separate membership fees and issue departmental publications. *One must be a member of the National Education Association before he can become a member of any department of the Association. The payment of one of the membership fees of the National Education Association does not include membership in any department having membership fee.* The membership of the departments which issue publications follows:

1. The Department of Superintendence—\$5 membership entitles one to receive for one year: (a) The Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence, which includes a list of members of the department; (b) The Official Report of the Winter Meeting; and (c) bulletins.
2. The Department of Elementary School Principals—\$2 membership entitles one to participate in the work of the department and to receive its bulletins issued in October, January, April, and July. The July number of the Bulletin is a Yearbook containing approximately three hundred pages including a list of members of the department.

This volume of Addresses and Proceedings is sent to all members of the National Education Association paying an annual fee of \$5, or it may be purchased by non-members for \$3. A space schedule for the departments was adopted by the Executive Committee in Cleveland, February, 1923. In accordance with this plan of space allotment, the officers of the departments have cooperated in deciding the selection of material for their respective departments.

Membership fees of the National Education Association and its departments and inquiries concerning all publications should be sent to 1201 Sixteenth Street Northwest, Washington, D. C.

FOREWORD

IT WAS A GREAT CONVENTION. There is nothing to compare with it in the whole world. It was a concentrated university with a faculty drawn from every state. The permanent officers who planned the session turned experience into foresight and produced a smooth-running piece of huge and complex machinery creditable to everybody. And Mary McSkimmon, complimenting everybody at every meeting complimented none too much." These are the words with which Superintendent William McAndrew of the Chicago schools closes his leading editorial on the Philadelphia convention which appeared in the *Educational Review* for September, 1926. Both of the 1926 meetings were held in cities of great historic interest. The Department of Superintendence met in the nation's capital while Congress was in session which gave opportunity for visitors to be present at Congressional hearings on the Education Bill. The summer meeting at Philadelphia took the Association back to the home of its birth and gave teachers an opportunity to visit shrines made sacred by Washington, Franklin, and other founders of the republic.

In keeping with the growth of the Association an effort is made each year to improve these *Proceedings*. The improvement this year consists in more careful selection of material, the addition of fly-leaves giving historical or introductory notes for each main division, and the addition of descriptions of related associations. The arrangement of the book is shown in the outline on page 5.

One new department appears this year for the first time; the Department of Social Studies.

The complete list of the Association's publications from 1857 to 1924 appears on pages 1041-60 of the *Proceedings* for that year. It is supplemented by tables in *Proceedings*, 1925: 1080-81; 1926: 1185.

The strength of the educational advance is suggested by the increase in the published output of the Association during the past few years. The grand total during 1920-21 for all the Association's publications was 22,951,650 pages; for 1925 it was 129,862,256 pages. This growing literature on the problem of the profession reflects the inspiring devotion of American teachers to the public school. The ideals which the teachers pass on to the children are the most precious thing in the national life.

DIVISION OF PUBLICATIONS OF THE
NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION.

HOW THIS BOOK IS BUILT

THE CONVENTIONS of the National Education Association are great congresses which bring together a wide variety of interests. This volume reflects these interests. Persons who use it will save time by forming a picture of its contents and arrangement.

The opening pages cover the speeches before the General Sessions at the Philadelphia meeting. These are followed by the reports of the Association's active committees. The addresses and minutes of the National Council of Education are next in order and are followed by addresses and minutes of the Association's departments. The closing pages are devoted to records and information pertaining to the Association since its organization in 1857, and brief descriptions of five national Associations. The volume as a whole represents the efforts of hundreds of persons engaged in all branches of educational activity for the past year.

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General Sessions

THE PROGRAM OF THE PHILADELPHIA CONVENTION was built around the general theme, *The Challenge of Childhood to the Teachers of America*. Special effort was made by President Mary McSkimmon to provide as much new talent as possible, including prominent laymen from various fields. Many members were attracted to the convention by the opportunity to visit historic shrines and the Sesquicentennial Exposition in the city where the Association was organized in 1857. The attendance is estimated at approximately 12,000. The convention opened with a vesper service in Independence Square. Evening sessions met in the Sesquicentennial Auditorium. The meetings of the Representative Assembly were held in the beautiful auditorium of the Academy of Music. Parallel with these sessions of the Representative Assembly, for persons not participating therein, two general sessions were held each morning in nearby theaters.

In addition to the department meetings covered in this volume the following conferences and allied groups were included in the program: American Home Economics Association; Conference on Art Education; Junior High School Conference; Conference on Lipreading for Hard of Hearing School Children; Music Conference; National Association of Visiting Teachers; National Congress of Parents and Teachers; National Council of Geography Teachers Conference; National League of Teachers Associations; National Organization of Secretaries of State Education Associations; National Vocational Guidance Association; School Garden Association of America; Conference on School Publications; Conference on Thrift Education.

ADDRESS

WILLIAM MATHER LEWIS, PRESIDENT OF GEORGE WASHINGTON
UNIVERSITY, WASHINGTON, D. C.

THE challenge of childhood to the teachers of America; that is the keynote of the sixty-fourth Annual Meeting of the National Education Association of the United States. How fitting it is that that keynote should be struck for the first time in the quiet of this Sunday afternoon, and in the shadow of the nation's most historic structure through whose ancient halls there pass in solemn majesty the great ghosts of those who fashioned a government unique in history; a government founded on the ideal of equality of opportunity for all. For the challenge of childhood to the teachers of America is a spiritual challenge and a patriotic challenge.

It is not a challenge peculiar to any time or to any land. It is the challenge of all the childhood of all the world, demanding its inalienable right to live the life more abundant; appealing to us that the heaven which lies about them in their infancy shall not be taken from them and for it substituted the materialism and narrowness and hatred which through no fault of theirs may blight the promise of unfolding life. It is the challenge flung out twenty centuries ago by the little Son of the Carpenter, stealing away from his parents to confound with his philosophy the leaders in the temple: "Wist ye not that I must be about my father's business?" Soon indeed, must each child in the world be about his father's business; taking up the tasks which tired hands lay down, stepping into the ranks of industry and of the social and political life of his community, carrying on for good or for ill, crystallizing tradition, writing new pages in the story of a nation's life.

To us is given the opportunity and the responsibility of interpreting in ennobling terms the meaning and the true business of life. Well may we recall the words of the ghost of the miser in Dickens' *Christmas Carol* who, when reminded by a friend that he had been a good business man, cried out in anguish, "Business! Mankind was my business! The common welfare was my business. The dealings of my trade were but a drop of water in the comprehensive ocean of my business!"

What a noble and practical definition that is. How it answers the challenge of unspoiled childhood; how thoroughly it depicts the lofty idealism of those who once stood where we meet today. William Penn; Benjamin Franklin; David Rittenhouse; John Hancock; Thomas Jefferson; George Washington—each as his name is called responds with courage and with humility, "Mankind is my business." And we of a later day, if we are true to the ideals of our profession, call back to them across the years, "Mankind is our business."

And such a little time has passed since they wrought that it should not be difficult for us to be kindled by the spirit which fired them. The foundations of Independence Hall were laid in 1731, just a year before

George Washington was born. Here he was chosen Commander in Chief of the Army in 1775. Here on a summer day in 1776 the Declaration of Independence was adopted. From this tower the Liberty Bell proclaimed the glad tidings. And on that bell today we read these words: "Proclaim liberty throughout all the land unto all the inhabitants thereof."

And how may liberty be proclaimed? The greatest teacher of all time said, "Ye shall know the truth and the truth shall make you free." Knowledge is the basis of liberty; knowledge and the abiding determination to find the truth, wherever the search may lead.

William Penn in his plan for government specified that there should be a committee of manners, education, and art. And in 1863 the assembly adopted an act directing that all children should be taught to read and to write by the time they were twelve years old and that they should then be taught some useful trade. The desire for intellectual freedom in America antedated the desire for political independence.

If the influence of environment means anything, it should mean that today, standing upon holy ground, we dedicate ourselves to the task of promoting intellectual freedom, and love of country, and reverence for spiritual verities among those whose future depends so largely upon our unselfish devotion to the task of teaching.

We cannot escape our responsibility by a cynical attitude toward our charges. The normal child is teachable. It is a wise educational maxim which states that where nothing is learned, nothing is taught. It is the glory of George Washington that he took raw, ignorant, and undisciplined soldiers and developed them into a victorious army. We cannot groan beneath the constantly greater burden which is being thrust upon the school by the home and those other agencies which at one time played so great a part in the broader education of the child and which now are more and more unmindful of their responsibilities and their opportunities. The so-called "youth problem" is no more serious than it ever was; it is the whole social problem which is more serious; the drifting away of the adults from those standards of conduct, from loyalty to those virtues which gave our ancestors that moral fibre and spiritual buoyancy which enabled them to fashion a republic out of a wilderness. And this shifting of standards is only an added challenge to the teacher; only an added opportunity for serving childhood to the end that manhood may be strong, and true, and fine.

In *As You Like It* Shakespeare pictures life as divided into seven periods, depicting in our progress from the cradle to the grave seven epochs. In the realm of education there are also seven ages: the preschool age; the kindergarten age; the elementary school age; the junior high school age; the senior high school age; the college age; and the professional or graduate school age.

We have been more concerned with giving the child some knowledge in each of these ages than in directing and aiding his transition from one to another. We have neglected the periods of adjustment; and the periods

of adjustment are the most important and fateful in life. We have devoted our attention to preparing our students to enter a more advanced grade or a higher school rather than directing them how to meet life. We have been remiss in every one of the seven ages of education in explaining to the youth who enters each what is before him, what is the purpose of the particular educational epoch and how he can best suit himself to its exigencies.

Booth Tarkington relates that "an old convict 'lifer' who had never been outside the penitentiary since he was twenty-two came out at sixty-three a free man. He was out three days and three nights, but was back on the fourth morning asking the warden to lock him up again. He could not adapt himself to the new world, but fled from it in terror, shirking the too great pain of the necessary readjustment." Every one in some degree experiences similar difficulty. The successful in life are those who have the power and the vision to make adjustments. The failures are those who have not that power.

And adjustments are not made intuitively. The child passing from the preschool age to the kindergarten age, thrown with other children outside the family for the first time, has no experience which will guide him in setting up the proper relations. Nor does the youth passing from the regulated program of the high school to the freer life of the college have knowledge of his new experience which will carry him to success. The organization of the confederation of the colonies after the Declaration of Independence was faulty because of a lack of precedents, and the finally successful form of government was accomplished only after repeated mistakes and disappointments.

We are not without precedents in educational development. We know the difficulties, the obstacles, and the problems which our children face in passing from one epoch to another, but yet we have not made this knowledge available to them and as a result the student mortality is vastly greater than it should be. The challenge of childhood to teachers is a challenge for guidance in transition periods even more than in the routine work of the school year. The vacation problem, the problem of orientation in the first weeks of the school term—these are points which if neglected will lessen our effectiveness as creators of an intelligent citizenry. No matter how finely constructed are the railroad coaches, they will not travel out of the station unless they are properly coupled to the engine and to each other.

A further challenge of childhood to the teachers of America is one which involves the question of mutual confidence and understanding without which the work of the classroom loses its vitality and education becomes a mere form. The real teacher never uses the power of official position to take advantage of those over whom he has brief authority. The real teacher eliminates those artificial barriers which separate the adult from the child mind. Judge Lindsay went to the root of the question in saying, "when you seek a boy go after his heart. But you can't get his heart by

sending him to jail and you can't win him by an act that is puerile and weak. Learn to sympathize with him. Sympathy is the divinest quality of the human heart." Confidence and affection conquer where authority and regulations fail.

Pestalozzi founded his philosophy upon this thought and the note which he sounded in education is the one we like to think distinguishes the modern schoolroom spirit at its best. Many a successful man looks back with affection to some teacher who quickened into life his best qualities and who led him away from absorption in the petty and the commonplace to the hills of vision.

The challenge of youth to the teachers of America is again the challenge of those hungry for a constructive program by which the spiritual elements in life may best be developed. "Ye shall know the truth and the truth shall make you free." He who enunciated those words struck straight to the heart of the great social and spiritual problems. He tore away the husks. He did not concern himself with the nonessentials of faith. Today, however, certain zealots are raising an issue which does not exist in fact. There is no conflict between science and religion; only between certain men in the field of science and certain in the field of theology. Whether or not the earth was created in six literal days or six ages is an interesting subject of contemplation, but it is of little spiritual significance to him whose religion is a personal and living thing. The question of whether man developed from a rib or from an amoeba is one for which a definite answer can be found, but in the meantime it should not engage much of the time that the truly devout devotes to religious thought. He is wise if he accepts the handwriting of the Almighty on the stratified rock of the eternal hills; if he deciphers alike the papyrus record and that first autograph written when

O'er the wet sands an insect crept
Ages ere man on earth was known
And patient time, while nature slept,
The slender tracing turned to stone.

He will seek to learn the law of nature rather than attempt to repress such learning by man-made law, knowing full well that one might as well attempt to sweep back the Atlantic with a broom as to stop the consideration of evolution by legislation.

The challenge of childhood to the teacher is to lead them to the realization of the essentials of religion and the contemplation of the undeniable fact that the philosophy of the Galilean is, as it has been for two thousand years, and ever will be, the greatest motivating force in the orderly progress of civilization.

Finally, the challenge which comes to us is that we mould effective citizens for our community and our nation. H. G. Wells has defined education as the preparation of the individual for willing and intelligent participation in the affairs of the world. A state or city which provides opportunities for the higher education of its youth has a right to expect returns on this investment in the form of intelligent and devoted citizen-

ship. It is the shame of a nation dedicated to the principle of universal suffrage that we lead the world in stay-at-home voters. President Coolidge has recently pointed out that in the last two elections only fifty percent of the American voters expressed at the polls their choice for president. This does not compare favorably with Great Britain where recently seventy-six percent of the electorate voted, and with France where seventy percent voted. Eastern Canada has a million less population than New England. It casts from a quarter of a million to a half a million more votes. In the United States the proportion of the highly educated who neglect their voting privilege is disproportionately high. If the republican form of government is still an experiment it is because of a lack of interest in the application of its principles, not in those principles themselves. It is because we refuse to think in political terms. We are given to stressing the thought of what education offers the individual but not enough what the educated individual offers the community which made his opportunities possible. Those whose bleeding feet reddened the snows at Valley Forge were inspired by the thought, "What can I do for my country?" Today too much we are reversing this inquiry and constantly asking, "What can my country and what can my government do for me?" No nation where such an attitude is prevalent can live up to the ideals and the visions of its founders.

It was my privilege two years ago to speak on Washington's birthday to the Boy Scouts of Washington at Mount Vernon, where each year they go to lay a wreath upon the tomb of the First Great American. And as we stood there awaiting the procession there came a little group from an Americanization school, representing perhaps a dozen nationalities. From this group there stepped a young man bearing a small wreath. Laying it against the grated door, and with tears running down his cheeks, he said, speaking in broken English, "George Washington, you are dead. You cannot speak to us but you can speak to God. Speak to God, George Washington, and ask him to make us good citizens of the country which has done so much for us."

The challenge of childhood to the teachers of America? That is the challenge, that we should so train our youth that from their hearts as well as from their lips there shall go up a prayer of loyalty. This great army of teachers gathered at the cradle of independence on the occasion of the sesquicentennial of the adoption of the Declaration of Independence will have gone far to meet the challenge of childhood if in the sessions of these coming days there shall arise a spirit shot through with the ideals of the founders of America; if earnestly and devotedly we turn our attention to blazing paths along which the children may go into the sacred places where they may meet their God, into the forum where they may strengthen the hands of good government, into the abundant life where liberty and happiness shall be theirs.

"We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty, and the pursuit of Happiness."

ADDRESS OF WELCOME

W. FREELAND KENDRICK, MAYOR OF PHILADELPHIA

As Mayor of the city of Philadelphia I am honored and pleased to extend a cordial and a genuine Philadelphia welcome to the visitors within our hospitable gates. No city in our great country could be more appropriately chosen for a meeting of the National Education Association than this old historic city where our nation was born, and I am confident that William Penn, from his lofty tower on City Hall, nods a welcome and approval of this Association meeting here at the time of our sesquicentennial anniversary. I am sure that the old liberty bell in the State House at Fifth and Chestnut streets trembles out, that again its voice might be heard around the world, and I am confident that the two million citizens of Philadelphia that I have the honor to represent join with me in extending this greeting, with the sincere hope that our visitors will not only be impressed with the greatness of Philadelphia but also with the patriotism and hospitality of our citizenship.

Philadelphia has been engaged in a mighty effort, an effort to adequately celebrate the greatest event in the history of the present generation. We have builded here upon a thousand acres an international exposition which we dedicate on the altar of patriotism and education.

We have been particularly fortunate in the loyalty, the devotion to flag and country, of splendid men and women of the character of Mary McSkimmon, of Joseph Wilson, our Director of Education, and others who have made this Exposition possible. Their encouragement and their assurance that they believed in this vast undertaking gave great encouragement to a little faithful band of Philadelphians who were determined to celebrate this event in 1926.

We have not forgotten the spiritual side of this celebration, although we have endeavored to show the progress of the arts and sciences, of education, of industry, and of everything that takes its part in the life of men, women, and children. We have not forgotten that yonder at Fifth and Chestnut streets a mere handful of courageous, God-fearing pioneers signed a Declaration of Independence that has made possible a nation of peace and prosperity with more than 110,000,000 souls residing safely within the folds of its flag today. We have not forgotten the sacrifice that they made, and the celebration of this 150th anniversary of the birth of our nation will not only be held within the confines of this exposition, but will be carried to those shrines of liberty that all patriotic American love so well.

A week ago we journeyed to Valley Forge, and there before a multitude of people we reproduced George Washington's army evacuating the old camp as it did 148 years ago.

I mention this because I believe it is good to think back over the sacrifices, the courage, and recall the character of the men who made our nation possible, and in welcoming the National Education Association to the city of Philadelphia, the thought is in my mind that the future greatness and pros-

perity of our country rests with education and the training of the mind of the youth of today who will be the men and the women of importance of tomorrow. To your keeping a great part of the future of our nation is entrusted, and therefore on behalf of the people of my native city who believe in education, who believe in the recollection of the great things that were done by our forefathers, who welcome you here to Philadelphia, in the spirit of William Penn, the spirit of brotherly love, I say: Welcome, thrice welcome. Our hearts and our homes are thrown open to receive you.

ADDRESS OF WELCOME

FRANCIS B. HAAS, SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION
HARRISBURG, PA.

Teachers of America! It is my privilege to extend to you a cordial welcome on behalf of the Department of Public Instruction of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania. The educational department of the Keystone State, typical of the office in other states, is merely the agency created by the people to further the realization of their educational ideals. These ideals are inherent in the immortal document, the one hundred and fiftieth anniversary of which is being commemorated by the Sesquicentennial Exposition, which joins in welcoming to Philadelphia the National Education Association.

The educational forces of Pennsylvania appreciate that the times are singularly opportune for uniting with the teachers of the nation in a re-consecration of our professional lives to the service of our country and the youth of the land, to the end that "Life, Liberty, and the Pursuit of Happiness" be realized and the "Blessings of Liberty to ourselves and our Posterity" be assured.

The concept of democracy has substance only insofar as it contemplates adequate opportunity for the progressive development of intelligence, and democracy flourishes only insofar as the practical application of that intelligence functions for mankind through the institutions and agencies serving society. Of all the existing institutions evolved as the logical resultant of the persistence of the ideals inherent in our Declaration of Independence the school is the one which presents in the highest degree the enthusiasm, the deliberate planning, and the courageous support of the largest number of people. The writings of many Americans of the early period expressed absolute conviction in the efficacy of and imperative need for education. Benjamin Franklin expressed the vision of the founders of our Nation when he said,

The good education of youth has been esteemed by wise men in all ages as the surest foundation of the happiness both of private families and of commonwealths.

The tremendous growth of our educational system in one hundred and fifty years bears witness to the faith of our people that democracy spells educa-

tion for the masses. A few comparative figures from Pennsylvania, doubtless paralleled in the educational history of your state, illustrate this extension of educational opportunity. Our records, fairly complete from 1836 on, show in Pennsylvania for that year an enrolment of 151,000 pupils and 3400 teachers in a population of 1,700,000, while in 1926 we find an enrolment of 1,850,000 children with 55,000 teachers in a population of over 9,000,000. In other words, the ratio of pupils to population has increased from 1 to 11 in 1836 to 1 to 5 in 1926. The ratio of teachers to population has increased from 1 to 500 in 1836 to 1 to 170 in 1926, and whereas the length of term in 1836 was 90 days, in 1926 it is 180 days.

As we confer annually in these great professional gatherings we are deeply conscious of the fact that the school is the teacher and that the teacher has the largest opportunity for the development of true citizenship in a democracy and for the perpetuation of democracy's ideals. Dean Russell recently pointed out that,

Good citizenship as an aim in life is nothing new. Patriotism, intelligent devotion to civic welfare, wherever found and at all times, bespeaks an education that is consciously acquired. But good citizenship as a dominant aim of the American public school is something new.

It is fitting, therefore, upon this historic occasion that Pennsylvania should give eager welcome to the teachers of America as we meet to solve the complex professional problems we are facing daily. The stage is set for the teachers of Pennsylvania to join ranks with the great army of teachers of the nation in a dedication anew of our professional zeal to the preservation of that liberty which the patriots proclaimed in 1776. Enlistment in the service of our profession provides the "Great Adventure" for the educational pioneer of our democracy, which in 1926 is still in its infancy.

The history of education both of our state and of our nation is replete with the exploits and achievements of those who have striven to the end that the "torch" of equal educational opportunity for all might be upheld and passed on to each succeeding generation. The broad significance of education as a social process is universally recognized. The press of America is playing an indispensable part in interpreting the schools to the people.

In the light of this important function of education as it expresses itself directly through the immediate work of the teacher, two responsibilities stand out crystal clear. The first has to do with the continuous adaptation of the subject-matter of instruction to the life needs of the citizen of all ages. Technically, this means a continuous, evolutionary curriculum revision and demands on the part of the teacher understanding contacts with all of the institutions of society.

The second responsibility is a corollary of the first and without it the curriculum process is ineffective. The growth of our complex and highly specialized civilization makes administration a major procedure in any business or profession. Coordination of the activities involved in the achievement of its aim is the function of administration in a social process. The object

of school administration is to keep the curriculum process usable in the hands of the teacher.

The administrative machinery of the school must be progressively developed to meet the demands of the developing curriculum. The profession must face the problem of ensuring that administration functions solely to provide a clear uninterrupted spark at the point of teacher-pupil contact. At the moment of this contact no operation of administration must be allowed to interfere with the teaching situation.

In other words, administration is faced with the problem of harmonizing the complex factors made necessary by a changing school society so that when teacher and pupil meet in the teaching situation the interchange still remains as free and unhampered as when Garfield sat on one end of the log and Mark Hopkins sat on the other.

The slogan announced by the distinguished President of our Association, "A stabilized, all-inclusive membership and the entire profession at work on its problems," has a deep significance in that it points out a rational method that must be followed in the solution of professional problems.

Madam President, we of Pennsylvania congratulate ourselves upon the opportunity to participate in and enjoy the benefits of the fine program which you have prepared. We are justly proud of the recognition Pennsylvania has received at the hands of the nation's teachers in the affairs of the National Education Association. The Association had its birth here in Philadelphia and three times has our state been honored with the presidency.

Teachers of America! Pennsylvania welcomes your participation in two great occasions: the sesquicentennial of our nation's birth and the sesquicentennial of the birth of educational opportunity in America.

ADDRESS OF WELCOME

WILLIAM ROWEN, PRESIDENT OF THE BOARD OF EDUCATION,
PHILADELPHIA, PA.

The Mayor of this great city, the Honorable W. Freeland Kendrick, extended an invitation to you all as mayor of the city. There has never been a time in my life when it gave me more pleasure, representing the board of education of this great city, than to extend to you all an invitation to this historic city of ours.

When I say "historic city," I think if you will just take the opportunity while you are sojourning here, to visit the many shrines that we have, I think you will go away fully satisfied that we have a historic city that every Philadelphian ought to be proud of, and in fact, every American citizen ought to be proud of. Right in this city of ours the Declaration of Independence was signed. When you stop and consider one hundred and fifty years ago, those patriots that assembled in Independence Hall and had bright visions of future glory, promulgated and sent forth to the world

one of the grandest and greatest documents that was ever conceived or written by man.

We also have the Continental, or Carpenter's Hall, where the first Continental Congress assembled. Right then and there those men framed the Constitution of the United States.

Then we have in this city the birthplace of the American flag, the flag of our country, which is nearer and dearer to the hearts of the American people than any other flag that floats, and while we fling it to the storm and breeze, and see no other sign of hope, other than that which emanates from its own radiant hue while gilded by the sunshine of prosperity, and stained with the efforts of peace, it speaks more eloquently than I can speak for it. Behold it! Behold it! Every star represents a state. There is music in every fiber and quiver, and wherever it speaks, its authority must and shall be respected. It speaks for more than a hundred million of free and happy people. It speaks for the Constitution and the law and the privileges that we all enjoy as free people, and it is the same old stars and stripes that the men of 1776 fought to preserve. It is the same old stars and stripes that the men during the war of 1812 fought to preserve. It's the same old stars and stripes that the American soldier went down into the citadel of Mexico and planted on the hilltops.

It's the same old stars and stripes that the men in '61 to '65 fought to preserve. It's the same old stars and stripes that the men during the Spanish-American War went forth to battle under, and it's the same old stars and stripes that the American soldier went more than four thousand miles across the ocean to preserve, and brought it back, not in dishonor, but in glory, and I am satisfied if an enemy without or an enemy within ever attempts to tear down the flag, or to disrupt this nation, the same men will go forth to battle again.

Now, my friends, it was just one hundred and eight years ago that the public school system was inaugurated in the city of Philadelphia, and one hundred and eight years ago a board of public education, or of school control was formed. At that time we had six schools, ten teachers, 2845 pupils, and the amount of school expenditures was \$22,049. Compare that with what we have today. We have more than 280,000 boys and girls going to our public schools. We have more than 7000 teachers that have those boys and girls under their care and keeping, and there is one important point that I want to call to the attention of the ladies and gentlemen who compose this convention, those teachers that we have—in fact, everybody that is employed by the board of education—must be American citizens, because we feel that if we want patriotic boys and girls in our schools, we must have patriotic teachers to inculcate in their hearts the spirit of love of country, love of the flag, and love of our institutions. That is what the board of public education stands for.

Now, as I say, the amount that was expended at that time was small. This year we will spend practically thirty-three millions of money, and I want to tell you, ladies and gentlemen, that money cannot be better ex-

pended, or a better receipt given for it, by any state in the Union, than to spend it on the education of our youth, and as Adams said in the Continental Congress, when he was speaking of the Declaration of Independence, "Sink or swim, live or die, survive or perish, I am for the Declaration of Independence." And that is the way I feel in relation to the education of our youth. No matter whether they are black or white, rich or poor, Jew or Gentile, give every boy and girl a square deal to get an education, then we need not fear an enemy from any source, because education gives knowledge, and knowledge gives power, and when that power is rightly used, it is a splendid thing for us all.

Now, in conclusion, I thought perhaps our distinguished Mayor would present the key so that our guests would have the key to this city. Now, Mr. Mayor, if you will—I think you will—endorse me, I am going to present to the President of this convention an official souvenir key, and I hope and trust that the key will unlock the hearts of every man, woman, and child in this great city of ours, to the members of this honorable profession, and in case you ever get into trouble, if our good Mayor doesn't take care of you, we have a business manager, William Dick, secretary and business manager of the board of education, who, perhaps, knows more about our city and our schools than most anybody that I know of outside of our mayor.

ADDRESS

JOSEPH R. WILSON, DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION AND SOCIAL ECONOMY, INTERNATIONAL SESQUICENTENNIAL EXPOSITION ASSOCIATION
PHILADELPHIA, PA.

As I listened to the inspired utterances of our honored mayor and Mr. Rowen, I felt truly that the spirit of Philadelphia was here tonight, and I had a thrill before I came in here as I watched that great army of people wending its way to the stadium to see "America"! I would that every one in this audience could join them, and yet I am glad you have remained to hear what I have to say. It seems unfortunate that "America" should be taking place tonight, in the stadium while you are here, but we had two days' rain and after preparing that magnificent spectacle, it seemed fitting that the people of Philadelphia should have the opportunity to see it, so what did we do? We threw open our gates to everybody and said, "Come," and perhaps if you can find your way in after this meeting is over tonight, you may see a sight that you will never forget as long as life remains.

I am informed that there are at present one hundred thousand people in that stadium, and one hundred thousand more that cannot get in.

Now, I have seen the key presented to President McSkimmon, a beautiful golden key of the city of Philadelphia, and I would that I had something to give her, but I gave her my heart long ago. When she came to

Philadelphia last December—and I am glad I am the last speaker because I am taking probably as much time as I want without trespassing too much—when Miss McSkimmon came to Philadelphia last December, we were then reenacting that matchless scene of Independence Hall, I had two tickets for it, one for my wife and one for myself, but my wife said, “Why not take Miss McSkimmon?”, and I had that great privilege and honor of being her escort, and what was the result? Many of you in this audience read that wonderful leaflet she sent out to every school in this country, to twenty-two or twenty-three millions of people, her impressions of what she saw that night.

That was my introduction to Miss McSkimmon, and I have treasured it as I shall throughout life.

Now, I am more interested in the National Education Association than any other man I know of in Philadelphia, for this reason: For nearly a year I have been trying to bring this convention here. The thought in your mind was to go to Atlantic City or some other alluring place unless Philadelphia could prove that it could take care of you, so therefore when the suggestion was first made to me of bringing you to Philadelphia, I went down to the University of Pennsylvania and I arranged for Franklin Field on which to hold your meetings and to place amplifiers there, and to give you auditoriums around the University so that you could hold your different meetings, and out of that came something greater than all; this very building that you see here today is a tribute to the National Education Association. It was the thought of housing you here which caused me to go to our mayor and plead that we should have an auditorium sufficiently large to take care of the National Education Association, and here it is, and if these curtains were down you would see its magnitude.

We can seat 17,000 people, and I hope before your convention is over that we will have to throw those curtains aside and seat it to its total capacity.

Welcomes are being extended to you on behalf of the city and the board of education. I extend a greeting to you on behalf of the Department of Education of the Sesquicentennial Exposition.

On the first of March of this year we did not have one dollar toward education. The Sesquicentennial was going ahead with these magnificent buildings, but there was no building for education, and I pleaded, and I pleaded for months, for days, weeks, and months, until on the first of March, an historic day to me, our mayor said to me in the audience chamber, “Mr. Wilson, I will give you \$250,000 to build that building. Education shall be a feature of the Sesquicentennial.”

That was a happy moment, for I had been pleading for recognition for ten months. I would that the mayor were still here, because there are certain things that I would like to say to him. From the very start he has been a friend of education, and he was only waiting that moment when he could find the funds to come forward and say, “Go ahead and build your buildings.” So with that \$250,000 we advertised for bids for the building

which we have already erected, and what do you think the lowest bid was? \$378,000, and the next one \$498,000. It looked as if I was up against something more, another hazard, but our splendid mayor said to me, "No, Mr. Wilson, we are going to put it through. The time for saying how much we shall spend on education has gone by. We are going to erect that building, no matter what it costs." That is what I wanted to say to Mayor Kendrick tonight, and he had the matter referred to him with power to act, and as a result the building which you will visit while you are here has cost \$348,000, or nearly \$100,000 more than the original appropriation, and in addition to that, the mayor gave another \$10,000 last week for a purpose to which I shall refer a little later.

Now, when I consider that on the first of March we had no money for an education building—March, April, May, June—scarcely three months have gone by, and in that building which is 524 feet long, and 208 feet wide, I am happy to tell you there will be contained the greatest, the most wonderful display in education and social economy that has ever been shown under one roof in the history of the world. I don't know how it has been done unless it has been with the help of Almighty God, and since I have mentioned that revered name, I want to tell you something about the Education Building which I know will appeal to the heart of every sincere man and woman in this audience: On the left hand side of the Education Building you will find a little chapel erected by all religions to the one God, dedicated and consecrated to Him, and I want to tell you that this is the first international exposition in the world which has ever honored God first, and that little chapel will be the most beautiful, exquisite jewel in this great setting. Mr. Tiffany—and his name is known universally—has taken a personal interest in that little chapel. There will be an altar at the end of it. It will seat 350 persons. There will be no services of religion of any kind. It is by all religions to the one God, but on that altar we will keep beautiful, fresh flowers every day. Behind the altar will be a stained glass window worth \$10,000 which Mr. Tiffany is sending over here, and on either side will be two beautiful flower windows, now on exhibition in the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York City. We will have eight beautiful stained glass windows in that chapel. The chandeliers were designed by the late Stanford White and made by Mr. Tiffany, and when I tell you that last week I paid \$1300 for a few minor repairs to those chandeliers, you can have some idea of what that chapel is going to be like. It is not a place—there will be no lecturing, no pulpit, no reading desk. There will be no set services in that chapel. There will be a place where you will be able to wander in from the noonday's heat and sit there in silence and meditate. It is a happy moment to me to think that I have been instrumental in introducing this chapel as a tribute to our God, and I know when I say that I echo what is in the heart of every man and woman in this room.

When I take you into that building—and I must say a word because this will be my only opportunity to address the National Education Associa-

tion—I want to tell you something about the exhibits which you will see when you go into it. We have states and universities, and the American Library Association will have a wonderful exhibit there, showing how the people are reached all over the United States by the library system—in fact, there are so many wonderful and alluring exhibits in that building that if I say more I may rob the building of your attendance.

I am very glad indeed, Miss McSkimmon, to have the privilege of being here tonight, and saying these few words, and particularly in calling the attention of the National Education Association to the recognition of Almighty God in education. Take that back with you to your respective homes. You have come from far and near, but remember this one thought: Hereafter, if we want to achieve anything in this world we must place God first. He has been last. We have not given Him the recognition the great Jehovah deserves, but when we place Him first in our lives there is no ambition that we cannot attain, there is no obstacle too great that we cannot remove it. When we place Him first—and it is well this Sunday night for me to use these words in His name—when we place Him first, when we can get up in the morning and walk to our window and look out of it, and ask, What is Thy will today, surely we will have a happier day for it, and when we remember—with the little children in your care—that the home is the foundation of the state, that as the home goes, so will the nation, but home is the very cornerstone on which civilization rests—you have a great responsibility in your hands, and I do hope with all my heart, along with the great curriculum of education, you will introduce spirituality and religion into every school in this land.

THE ABUNDANT LIFE—ABSTRACT

WILLIAM M. DAVIDSON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, PITTSBURGH, PA.

Superintendent William M. Davidson of Pittsburgh, in a notable address before the opening session of the Sixty-fourth Annual Meeting of the National Education Association at Philadelphia, struck the keynote of that great convention when he spoke of the charter of childhood, written centuries ago by the Great Teacher when He said, "Suffer the little children to come unto me, and forbid them not, for of such is the Kingdom of Heaven." "That charter of childhood," said Doctor Davidson, "written at a time in the development of the history of a mighty people, placed the child in the proper relationship to the community, and the message from that lesson has come sweeping down to us across nearly twenty full centuries of history until tonight we meet in a great National Education Association convention with the thought of childhood, and with the president of the Association and every teacher saying unto themselves, "Suffer little children to come unto us, and forbid them not, for of such will we build states and nations, and civilizations, and the idealism of the world, if you will give us a chance to unfold the life of children as our ideals would challenge us to so unfold them."

THE LAW'S PROTECTION OF CHILDHOOD—ABRIDGED

GRACE ABBOTT, CHIEF OF THE CHILDREN'S BUREAU, U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, WASHINGTON, D. C.

We sometimes forget that provisions for education, for health, for recreation, are made possible for all children only through law. We sometimes forget, too, that while all children are not in need of all the agencies that the public purse makes available, some of the children need all of them and all of the children need some of them. There is no parent however wise and rich and resourceful that can successfully rear his children without the cooperation of the community. But I have not been asked to discuss all the ways in which needs that can not be individually met are taken care of by community cooperation.

I have, I think, been asked to speak this morning on the enforcement by the state of the child's right to an education by preventing interference with his regular attendance at school. Our present theory of the child's rights and the parents' obligations and privileges is the product of many centuries. We have traveled a long way from the time when the father had complete authority over the child—even the right of life and death—and the state reenforced his rights and not the obligations which parenthood created. According to Blackstone the parent owed the child under the common law, the duty, first of protection, second of education, and third of maintenance. Blackstone held that the second, that of education, was by far the most important, but we would certainly say today that education presupposed both protection and maintenance.

From the colonial period the interest of the state in the child, the obligation of the state to protect him against cruelty and neglect and its right to compel the performance of parental duties on pain of removing the child from the custody of the parents was established. Child labor at tender years in mine and factory was praised, not condemned a century ago because of the very great interest in promoting industry on this continent.

In the last fifty years the movement for free schools and for the attendance of every child at school had spread over the country. This did not happen without great opposition. Nothing worthwhile does. In the early seventies the question of compulsory school attendance and, for that matter, of free public schools was a subject of heated controversy in the New England states. At that time the arguments against a compulsory attendance law were summarized as follows: (1) It created a new crime, (2) it interfered with the liberty of parents, (3) it arrogated new power to the government, and (4) it was unAmerican and unadapted to our free institutions.¹

If the slogans of today were carried back to the seventies the working men who were urging compulsory school attendance and free public schools in the seventies would have been denounced as bolshevists by the small

¹ See Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1888-89, Vol. 1, p. 493, quoting speech made in 1872. Washington, 1891.

group of people who can always be counted upon to raise the cry of dangerous radicalism when any measure of social progress is considered.

During the time from 1895 to 1924 when the population of the United States increased 60 percent, attendance at the elementary public schools increased 50.4 percent, at the public high schools 868.3 percent, and at the colleges and technical schools 359 percent.

At the beginning of the period known as the "gay nineties" only 26 states and territories had compulsory education laws of any kind, and in most of these the provisions for enforcement were either very weak or entirely missing.¹ That children between eight and fourteen should attend school for at least two weeks during the school year was the most usual requirement of these laws.²

Then, as now, compulsory school laws were difficult of enforcement when not supplemented by laws which prohibited the employment of children. In 1895 nine states³ had no child labor laws at all, and in twelve other states⁴ such laws as there was related only to minimum age in mines or contained only the very common provision prohibiting the employment of children in acrobatic and other exhibitions or in other dangerous occupations. There were only nine states⁵ which prohibited children under fourteen from work in factories. No state required completion of a specified grade in school before employment. The laws of some states still suggest the last instead of the present century in the period for which school attendance is required and in the enforcement provisions of their laws, and some school superintendents may be found who attempt to justify their failure to enforce compulsory laws. But such laws and such superintendents are becoming rarer each year.

The compulsory school laws have contributed to revolutionary changes in our elementary and high school education. It has led to vocational and prevocational classes, to special training for the feeble-minded or subnormal, to scientific consideration of behavior and conduct problems. Neither law nor public opinion makes possible a selection on the basis of "goodness" nor wealth of those who shall have the opportunity of receiving the kind of training by which they can profit. If we have discovered what the subnormal cannot learn we have also learned that they profit greatly by special types of training and are organizing to give them the kind of training that they can use and enjoy.

A report made last autumn by the mission sent to America by the Federation of British Industries to investigate the industrial situation in Amer-

¹ See reports from state officials, etc., pages 470-526 of Report of U. S. Commissioner of Education 1889-1890, for evidence as to how little enforcement there was in most states up to 1890.

² Vermont, New Jersey, Massachusetts, and Ohio required 20 weeks; Maine, Nevada, Illinois, and Utah 16 weeks; New York 14 weeks; Connecticut entire term. In the case of these as well as those requiring only 12 weeks there were some exemptions.

³ Arizona, Florida, Mississippi, Nevada, New Mexico, North Carolina, Oregon, South Carolina, and Texas.

⁴ Alabama, Arkansas, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Idaho, Delaware, Missouri, Montana, Utah, Washington, and Wyoming.

⁵ Connecticut, Illinois, Louisiana (girls only), Michigan, Minnesota, New Jersey (girls only), New York, Ohio, and Wisconsin (applied to 7 months per year).

ica is of special interest. These British business men were, in fact, sent to find out why American industrial efficiency was increasing while British industry was remaining stationary not to say declining. They gave several reasons, the first of which I quote:

I. The spread of education, both general and technical. There is no doubt that the general level of technical education today in the United States is extremely high, and ample facilities are available for anyone wishing to increase his efficiency by technical study. As showing the great increase in the spread of higher education it is significant to note that there are now 500,000 university students, as compared with 200,000 students ten years ago.

The British business men found that in spite of the jokes of the last 20 years about the college boy in business and manufacturing the tendency during the last ten years has been to place college trained or technically trained men in key positions in business and industry. This means that scientific organization and determination of policy will succeed the rule of thumb or the accidental discovery of methods which had long been understood and evaluated by laboratory tests. The utilization of science in industry and in industrial organization is still in its infancy. We need, therefore, not only to look back at the industrial revolutions of the past but ahead at those that are still to come.

Some industries today have themselves organized training classes similar to those now given or which can be had in technical high schools, engineering trade schools. "Corporation schools" in which large industrial establishments are offering opportunities for trade training are "schools" reflecting in the method of training adopted the spirit of the times. The indications are, therefore, that the demand for training schools maintained by the public school system will increase and the numbers in attendance will increase.

The percent of children attending school varies greatly from state to state. These differences are not all due to better compulsory and child labor laws in the several states. In western states in which there has been no racial or immigrant group or native white Americans isolated from the general current of American life public opinion and lack of opportunity for industrial employment has accomplished this end with less stringent laws than have been found necessary in other states. The compulsory school laws have quite clearly been an explanation of the differences in school attendance in certain cities. For example, 89.4 percent of all the 14 and 15 year old boys and girls are in school in Youngstown, Ohio, a steel town with a high percentage of eastern Europeans, but situated in a state in which both the attendance and the child labor laws fix a high standard. But there are striking differences between cities with substantially the same attendance laws. In Seattle, Washington, the percent of these 14 and 15 year old children in school was 87.7, while it was 80.5 percent in Cambridge, Mass., 72.6 percent in Chicago, 70.8 in New Haven, Conn., 68.8 in Baltimore, 63 percent in Paterson, N. J., 45.4 percent in Fall River, Mass.

In the course of investigations of the employment of children in the different types of farm work in representative districts of the United States, the Children's Bureau found their employment on farm work was responsible for long periods of absence from school and consequent retardation. This was found to be particularly true of the migratory children who are often recruited in cities and towns for work on truck farms and in beet fields during both the planting and harvesting season. In the more prosperous farming regions the work of the children on the home farm, although frequently heavy and for long hours is generally confined to the vacation season, but in the poorer farming districts, investigation showed the children were relied upon to do a man's work in both the spring and autumn and there was great neglect of education in consequence. Local public opinion justifies this sacrifice of the children on the ground of economic necessity, but premature employment of children does not cure, it perpetuates the poverty which is said to require the sacrifice of the training period. This inequality of opportunity which the children enjoy is the really important reason why some solution of our farm problems must be found. We are not willing to ride to prosperity on the backs of little children.

A recent study of the mill schools of North Carolina¹ showed that with a state law passed a few years ago requiring attendance up to 14 years of age² and no educational requirements for going to work, a little more than 20 percent of the 13-year-old school children are not even enrolled in school. According to this report non-attendance is higher for these mill schools than in the rural districts of North Carolina.

The statement frequently made that the present day compulsory education and child labor laws have been enacted at the cost of the authority of the parent, who is, it is usually added, in the best position to know about the needs of his children, is unwarranted. While the rights of the parent have been turned by public opinion into duties and responsibilities and the interest of the state in the welfare of all the children of the state has grown, this interest has led to a strengthening of family ties because of the importance of the home in a child welfare program.

Under the earlier laws, the parent was supposed himself to give his children the necessary education and training, and failing in this obligation, they were to be taken away from him and bound out. Obviously many parents otherwise able to give their children the necessary care found it impossible to educate them properly and they were in consequence deprived of their children. The children lost the benefits which come from family life, parental affection, and the association with their brothers and sisters. The provision of free public schools not only meant much better education but it enabled the child to remain in his own home. Until very recently the children of a poor widow, however eager she was to keep together her

¹ A study of the Mill Schools of North Carolina; John Harrison Cook. Teachers College, Columbia University Contributions to Education, Vol. 178, pp. 39 and 40.

² The only other states with so low a standard are Georgia, South Carolina, Texas and Virginia.

family, were taken from her regardless of whether this separation involved a great loss to the children. The so-called mother's pension laws now enacted in 42 states and the District of Columbia are intended to prevent exactly that from happening.

Parents are increasingly interested in the scientific care of their children, in their obligations and their duties rather than their rights. In the infant welfare conferences held under the Maternity and Infancy Act in rural areas, the problem is usually not how to stimulate attendance but how to take care of the numbers of children who are brought—sometimes great distances by automobile, by horseback, by mule back, and on foot to the examining doctor. These are not sick children; they are the average run of well children suffering usually from malnutrition, from remediable defects, and from bad habits. Their parents come to ask what is the best way to care for their children. The cooperation of parents with the psychiatrist at the habit clinic and the child guidance clinic is usually secured with little difficulty.

The child labor laws of the present are designed not only to protect the individual child but to eliminate the competition of the child and the adult in the labor market which results in the underpayment of fathers and makes the continued employment of the children seem necessary. It is the states that have led in child labor legislation, in effective compulsory school laws, in mother's pension legislation, and in other provision for the prevention of the unnecessary breaking up of family life.

If one goes back to the ideals and the statutes in which the ideals of a hundred years ago were expressed, we seem to have made much progress. But the advance has nevertheless been discouragingly slow. The two great obstacles to securing a minimum standard of protection and of opportunity for all children have always been (1) the selfish interest in the exploitation of children by the few and (2) the patient toleration of injustice to children by the many.

FIRST STEPS IN PARENT TEACHER COOPERATION— ABRIDGED

MRS. A. H. REEVE, PRESIDENT, NATIONAL CONGRESS OF PARENTS AND
TEACHERS, AMBLER, PA.

Is the school a laboratory, or a repair shop?

Do we require in it teachers, or tinkers?

Is it their task to train and develop the minds of their pupils, or to remedy bodily defects, to correct faulty nutrition, to break up habits of lying and stealing, to inculcate the doctrine of fair play, to instil respect for law and order and to establish obedience to authority?

In the brilliant program of this great convention you are called upon to answer "the challenge of childhood to the teachers of America." But who are the teachers, and when and where does their work begin?

Are they to be found in the school room alone? Does the child wait to begin his education until he is six years old? Do you find a clean slate on which to write, a sound but perfectly blank mind in a sound body, a character totally unformed for good or ill, awaiting your formative and guiding hands?

If this is not the case—and I think we can agree that it is not—what has been the training of these first teachers who send to you the children graduating from the six-year course in the home-school, and what cooperation have you established with them, in order that the transition may be made with the least possible friction? Is the system so perfectly organized, so evenly graded, that the pupil may pass from one phase of education to the other and back again, with no slightest consciousness of variation in levels, in standards and in aims?

In the sevenfold statement of objectives recently adopted by your Committee on the Reorganization of Secondary Education we find these tests, which are to be used for the checking of the worth of every subject which our children are to be asked to study, in order that nothing may be introduced into the curriculum which does not meet one of these fundamental needs. They are as follows:

1. Worthy home membership
2. Sound health
3. Mastery of the tools and technics of learning
4. Vocational effectiveness
5. Useful citizenship
6. Wise use of leisure
7. Ethical character

Yet not one of these objectives can be classed as the province of the school alone, and it may even be questioned if some of them are the province of the school at all, save as it may act in a supplementary capacity to other educational factors in the life of the child.

Instruction in the use of the tools and technics of learning is the task of the trained educator, it is true; yet knowledge is useful only in the degree in which it may be made to function. Its mere accumulation is like the heaping up of riches without knowing who shall gather them. Opportunity for the application of acquired wisdom must be furnished by the living conditions by which the student is surrounded in the home and in the community.

Vocational skill may be developed by the school, but vocational effectiveness is the result of the application of that ability to environment for its successful modification. Unless education covers a wider field than the school in its offer of opportunity to this end, much time, money, and labor will go for naught. For the full attainment of this objective there is need of preschool preparation through training in accurate observation and manual dexterity; of recognition by the home of the dignity of labor and the obligation of public service, running always parallel with the teaching in

the school, and of post-school or community provision for the employment of the efficiency acquired in the community-supported educational system.

The foundations of *useful citizenship* are laid in the early years, when mental soundness is established by means of wholesome habits of eating and sleeping, as well as of feelings and emotions; when, as Dr. Arnold Gesell says, the thoroughly normal child gains the positive emotional habituations which make for sociability, for self-control, and even for a childish measure of sympathy and cooperativeness, through consistent training and that favorable home atmosphere which represents to him socialized goodwill. These relationships, a cheerful philosophy of life, a sense of values and of security in his small world, with self reliance and self-confidence, strengthened later through the wider contacts of the school but again always paralleled by the steadying influence of the home are essentials in his preparation for the larger civic arena of the community, the state and the nation as these in turn are to be entered. Too often is the school compelled to completely demolish faulty construction and build anew, sending the child back to face in the home the wreck of all that he has been taught to rely upon and to seek in vain for firm ground on which to establish a method of living which may bear some resemblance to a standard.

As to the *wise use of leisure*, here the challenge of the children rings out, not to the school but to the home and the community; not to parents and teachers only but to all citizens. Of what use is it for the school to create a demand, only to find that there is no supply—or a supply that is worse than none? How do we amuse ourselves, we who are “patterns of behavior” for the children for whose standards we are thus responsible? We have done worse than sell our birthright for a mess of pottage, for we do not obtain even the temporary nourishment which Esau’s recklessness secured him. Goethe says that while books may not make a man bad or good, yet they do made him better or worse. We have taught our children to read, and we supply them, or allow them to be supplied, with the sweepings of degenerate minds. We have good literature, it is true—plenty of it. But it is in libraries; it is in books which retail at from one to three dollars and sometimes more; in magazines which sell for fifty cents; it is a part of the English course, not a habit of the home. On the other hand, at every corner—especially where our high schools stand—and often several times in the block, wherever our youth do congregate, they are offered slow but certain poison, in covers anatomical, neurotic or lurid, at ten or fifteen cents a treatment. It is only necessary to travel a little on trains and trolleys to see how freely these insidious drugs are being absorbed, not only by men and women but by boys and girls of all ages, while the public hugs to itself the comforting conviction that nothing can be done about it.

If the parents and teachers of America remain inactive in the face of this challenge, then they are unworthy of the professions of which they are members. For parenthood is a profession second to none in its far-reaching importance and its grave responsibilities, though far beneath all the others in the requirements for its practice.

A sixth objective in your all-inclusive program is given as *worthy home membership*. I should like to restate that proposition to read: membership—with all that the word implies—in a worthy home. In such a home, standardized closely as to its teaching and ideals with the best that school and community have achieved, will be taken the first steps in parent-teacher cooperation, as children are given sound mental and physical foundations, habits of observation and concentration, manual skill, service which the smallest child may render and patterns of behavior in home relationships and in civic righteousness, set by the parents and woven into the very warp and woof of the character of the boy or girl, to wear as long as the fabric itself endures.

Education based upon the objectives touched upon has already gone a long way on the road to the formation of a code of ethics which ascends normally and effectively into that conception of religion which is "the life of God in the soul of man" and which results in that "life more abundant" which is so great a need in the complex civilization in which our lot is cast.

That a child's character is formed in the preschool years is, then, a fact more and more generally acknowledged, as also that the mental characteristics are as much the result of right habits, right environment, as are his physical attributes. The development of both should be initiated in the cradle, where education begins, for when consciously good teaching is not provided from the outset, bad habits are being definitely inculcated. In child training there is no neutral position; "he that gathereth not, scattereth."

A test of this theory has recently been made, and the facts have been established to the satisfaction of both parents and teachers.

Herbert Hoover, speaking in his capacity as president of the American Child Health Association before the American Health Congress in Atlantic City last month, set a national standard when he said:

Our ideal is not only a child free from *disease*; it is a child made free to develop to his utmost capacity for physical, social and mental health. This means *liberty to grow*—the modern idea of education.

Until quite recently the question of disease was the province of the medical profession, and the man, woman or child who was not unmistakably ill was considered well—or well enough; but the old proverb that "prevention is better than cure" has slowly won recognition as a practical truth, and health campaigns are taking the place of attacks upon wide-spread disease. Unfortunately the vis inertia of the great mass of the people, backed by ignorance or indifference, is repelling the advance of the doctors and nurses struggling so valiantly against it. On the two flanks the greatest progress has been made. The very rich have recognized and adopted preventive measures as one more luxury, and the hospital-trained attendant directs their nurseries, while the social workers and visiting nurses are surveying, investigating, and districting the very poor, bringing them into clinics and supplying free medical aid.

Between those two extremes dwell the millions of the average people, who recognize actual illness—usually—when they see it, but who do not give serious attention to the state of not being well. Here we find the people who say proudly; “oh, my child can eat anything!”—and who let him do it; those who send their children to school with a sausage and a banana, or with money to buy a pie at the corner stand because it takes so much time to put up a lunch; the people who are overworked or tired or lazy and so give their children coffee and fried food and canned stuff because it is the easiest way; and who, considering quantity as synonymous with quality, believe that if a child eats enough, it is adequately nourished. Here too we find those who still believe that it is a good thing for children to “take” all the diseases possible in the early years, “because they have to have them anyway,” and so expose their own and other peoples’ children mercilessly to contagion; and those who resent the report of the school nurse and consider—and publicly state, that “it is none of *her* business to tell me how to bring up my own child.” They are not remote heathen or savages, these people; they sit beside you in church; they elbow you in the street car; they are in front of you and behind you in the “movies.” They are well dressed and prosperous-looking; they drive cars—not Fords—and they would not be seen at a free clinic; they are affectionate parents, and they mean well by their boys and girls; but they do not know their business—and they are ignorant of their ignorance.

Thirty years ago a woman who knew and loved childhood set in motion the great idea that parenthood is a profession, when she summoned the mothers of the land to take counsel together. From that first congress of mothers has grown, as some of you are aware, a mighty organization of parents and teachers—a million men and women united by one central purpose, the welfare of the boys and girls of America, founded upon the solid rock of the education of the whole child, all the time, everywhere, it has laid increasing emphasis upon the one great truth which its years of experiment and experience have made evident—that the child is developed in three sections of one great school of life, and that home, school, and community must have one standard and one program if that education is to result successfully.

Reaching now from the preschool and the study circle through grade and high school to the college association, this cooperative body, meeting generally in the American forum, the public school, has become a broadcasting station through which the average parent and the average teacher may be reached and influenced. By its means as by no other, the program of the school may be carried over and made to function in the home, the untrained mother may be drawn into the study group for education extension, and the community may be aroused to a consciousness of its responsibility for the training of its future citizens by means of preventive measures and the force of good example in high places.

For more than a quarter of a century this organization has striven to understand and support the school system, to promote health, to protect childhood and to better general conditions, while slowly finding its exact

place in education, and learning its limitations as well as its opportunities. Six years ago it began to correlate its somewhat scattered efforts more closely, and by 1923 it was prepared to formulate a program of five special aims: (1) the education of its rapidly increasing membership in the duties and privileges of the organization; (2) the development of the idea that parenthood is an all-the-year-round profession which takes no vacation and whose busiest season is to be expected when the schools are not in session; (3) the restoration to the home of the specific duties of the home in order to relieve the congestion in the school system; (4) the awakening of the general public to the value of education and its responsibility for assuring it equally to every child, everywhere; (5) the promotion of law observance beginning with the preschool in the home and applied both to civics and to health.

As this program developed, the conviction strengthened that there were certain definite contributions which the school had a right to expect from the home, of which the first, and possibly the best, was a scholar physically sound and consequently mentally alert, and to that end, the observance of the laws of mental and physical health must begin with health, must begin with life itself and not upon the attainment of school age.

After careful observation of two experiments, one made by the California branch of the Congress in cooperation with the state health authorities, and one in Georgia in connection with our preschool study circles, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers made in the summer of 1925 what is to the best of its knowledge and belief the first definite, nation-wide effort to place fairly and squarely where it belongs—upon the *parents*—the responsibility for sending to school a child ready to take advantage of what the school has to offer. As a result we are seeing today what seem to be the first faint glimmerings of the dawn of a new era—in which the normal child shall be the average child and not the rare exception; when the undernourished, the hard-of-hearing, the half-blind, the mentally retarded because physically unfit, shall be in the minority, and the reproach of the community shall fall where it should—upon the negligent father and mother who wait for the orders of a health policeman before they take steps to learn and then to obey the laws of health.

The United States Commissioner of Education, Doctor Tigert, has expressed his conviction in these words:

It is a matter of congratulation that parents are beginning to show their realization of the importance of preparing their children for school life during the preschool period by taking the initiative in a nation-wide campaign to insure the entrance into school of children free from remediable defect. This movement, inaugurated by the National Congress of Parents and Teachers is one to which the United States Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, gives its hearty cooperation.

Of the recent movements to benefit children, none has impressed me as being more significant than this one, which aims to give to every child in the United States a chance to be well and happy and to grow to useful manhood and womanhood.

Why send to school from your home a neglected child?

Let parent pride put parent power to work!

This is the challenge which is offered to the homes of America by the National Congress of Parents and Teachers.

THE CHILD AND THE RURAL SCHOOL—ABSTRACT

FLORENCE M. HALE, STATE SUPERVISOR OF RURAL EDUCATION, AUGUSTA,
MAINE

The rural child has a right to expect an equal chance to receive an adequate preparation for life through a well-taught program of the fundamental subjects taught in all schools and to go to a school large enough and well enough equipped so that he learns how to mingle with other children—how to live with people—and how to conduct himself in a well-mannered fashion. The greatest handicap of the rural pupil has been the usual isolation of his surroundings and the meagerness of his acquaintance with habits and customs common in mingling with large groups of people.

Most rural educators believe that the closing of little, poorly equipped schools and consolidating them into well-equipped, fairly large central schools is the best way of giving the rural child both the subject-training and also the larger life experiences.

The speaker believed that some form of federal aid, similar to that at first advocated in the Education Bill, is necessary if every rural child is to have an opportunity for equal educational opportunities. This need not mean federal control. If the method of administering federal aid has been such as to seem to favor such federal control, then let the method and its administrators be changed. The plan itself, however, could be worked out so as to give assistance where it is needed.

The child of the rural school is now most neglected in the cultural subjects such as music, art, and, oftentimes, real literature. One of the greatest needs in rural education today is someone who shall formulate a practical course in music, for example, and then evolve a sensible method to guide the untrained teachers in the small schools in carrying out the course.

The trend of today to emphasize agricultural subjects in rural schools is all right if not carried too far, but children will never stay on the farms through knowledge of seed testing, etc., alone. They must have an education that will waken their souls to the beauty of country life through a study of nature and of fine literature centering around country problems with a broader outlook in the world's affairs to go along with it and they must learn to find resources for happiness in remote places, such as today is easily available through the radio, improved victrolas, etc., if only the child is taught how to enjoy them and how to have a taste for fine things.

In other words, the rural child is like every other child—a potential citizen and through education should be taught how to live creditably with other people and how to enjoy the fine things in the world about him.

TRANSFORMING SCHOOL FOR THE RURAL CHILD— ABRIDGED

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In compliance with the request of Mary McSkimmon, this is to be a report of progress, made in transforming school for the rural child in a situation that is typical, in the hope and belief it may strengthen somewhat the contention of that group of educational thinkers who recognize a fundamental cause for the increasing inefficiency of the one and two-room schools of this country, and who believe it becomes our solemn duty to make this one-teacher school an efficient educational agency wherever this building may be, because more than 5,000,000 of the nation's children are in such schools today and for incontrovertible reasons, millions will likely attend such schools for many generations to come.

They recognize that the rapid growth of cities during the past fifty years, the needs they presented, forced the development of a system of educational procedure in keeping with the conditions and needs of urban life—a procedure concerned with course of study, grading and classification of pupils, suitable textbooks, supervision, administration.

Because the graded system proved reasonably satisfactory in the cities, the tragic mistake was made in modeling the state course of study after the city plan; overlooking the patent fact that the rural school presents conditions diametrically opposed to those of the city, so that the impossibility of one teacher making the school serve the educational needs of from twenty to forty boys and girls of different degrees of ability and varying in age from six to fifteen years by forcing this heterogeneous mass of humanity into an arbitrary mold through an obedient attempt to follow the traditional course of study and curriculum and to use the official daily program and prepare pupils for passing the quarterly and final examinations for promotion and eighth grade graduation—is so obvious that one wonders why we have been so slow to believe that modern educational ideals *are* realizable in the small rural schools, so slow to set ourselves seriously to the challenging task of providing right educational opportunity for the sake of the individual child as well as his country.

This carries no implication that there should be less effort in the direction of intelligent consolidation; on the contrary, making this school a more nearly efficient institution will expedite progress in consolidation by raising the general level of intelligence, for "we, the people," still control.

During 1910-1912, while connected with the Division of Rural Education in the State Normal School, Kirksville, Missouri, I became deeply impressed with the general situation: Five million children of varying ages getting their only preparation for life in these schools! approximately one-fourth or 1,250,000 of this number were leaving school annually; they would be men and women in an incredibly short time; establishing homes, participating in the public business of district, county, and state. Often

they would exert the determining influence on public policies, conscientiously but too often to the detriment of the cause they would serve—and for self-evident reasons.

There I came to realize the need of an experimental study in such schools under existing conditions, and finally won my own consent to undertake it.

The initial steps included finding a district with a school suffering from all the characteristic ills and having also a vacant house available for the teacher's home. The Porter school met every required test. A four room shack was rented by the teacher for her home and she agreed to "teach" the school for eight months at \$50 a month with the sub rosa understanding that if she could prove satisfactory to the patrons, and if they would cooperate with reasonable demands which did not contemplate a burdensome tax, she would remain three years. Thanks to the county superintendent of schools, a man of vision and courage, I was free to work out the best possible curriculum, daily program, etc., and proceed at all times according to my best judgment. Briefly, it was to be a real "laboratory."

The measure of the community can be taken by viewing the schoolhouse, a shack built by a jack carpenter at a cost of \$600 some twenty years preceding, a house lacking in every essential of a school, hospitable to the tramping fraternity, but allowing its children to frost hands and feet in severest winter. Yet it was necessary to call a mass meeting to secure favorable sentiment of the community before the school board would agree to let the teacher lock doors and windows effectively against the tramps, lest they react on the farmers by burning haystacks and barns. Previous to 1912 these creatures burned window shutters, toilet doors and many bushels of coal unmolested.

To evaluate progress made, a closer examination of the schoolroom as it appeared September 1, 1912, is necessary. There were no shades at the windows, although three windows were on the south and exposed to the sun's rays all the day; the plastering was broken and the torn wall paper loaded with dust hung in festoons; the woodwork, painted an ugly blue, was begrimed with dirt; the old stove in the middle of the room was connected with the flue by several joints of horizontal pipe that quickly filled with soot and forced the gas and smoke into the room; a wabby teacher's desk, a set of torn maps, a worthless globe, and a few soiled and torn "library books" in a cupboard completes our inventory.

That there are, today, thousands of schools in this country more or less like this 1912 picture of Porter school is justification for reciting such details to this audience.

Only \$200 were available for the much needed improvements, but note the response of this small group of parents to a rightful appeal for their children's welfare—all people of very limited means and burdened with the onerous duties of farm life.

By December, the main room had been transformed. The plastering was repaired and the side walls covered with a soft tan oatmeal paper, the arched ceiling with a light paper; a picture molding around the room was

stained a golden oak as was all the wood work; windows were provided with adjustable shades; a new built-in bookcase with glass doors was supplied with a good traveling library and several sets of supplementary books; a new teacher's desk and chair, a slate black board lowered for the use of *all* sizes of children, a few copies of well framed masterpieces on the walls, an oiled floor, an organ and a telephone near the teacher's desk that connected the school with every home, presented conditions essential to a modernized educational program, and gave to the patrons a new vision of the service their school could give.

The stove had disappeared; a full sized basement with concrete walls and floor had been constructed by labor contributed in lieu of money by the interested patrons and in it was installed a good hot air furnace which absorbed \$189.65 of the \$200 of money in the school's treasury. There was also running water, a kitchen sink, a drinking fountain, and an oil stove.

The school yard came in for a share of attention. The toilet buildings were repaired and screened, but no changes were more significant than the provision for play.

A homemade giant stride and volley ball standards set in concrete were placed so as to interfere as little as possible with running and circle games; in the rear of the yard were horizontal bars built over an ample pit filled with a sand and sawdust mat. The crowning touch, however, was the erection of a thirty foot flag staff made of two discarded telephone poles, spliced, and set in concrete, from which floated daily the Stars and Stripes.

That these improvements came one by one as the result of much counseling and the heroic efforts of the parents had many values for all concerned, and "cooperation" became the community slogan. It was this same spirit that made possible the transportation of eighteen pupils who lived unusual distances from the school as a Delphi school wagon driven by a sixteen year old school boy, whose father furnished a team of horses gratuitously the first year, brought them in regularly, promptly, and comfortably, the teacher riding with them for one mile.

Any departure from traditional methods is risky in a rural school, but children are reasonable beings and in this case they agreed to the trial of a new plan which it was explained would bring them long recitations and study periods and other large benefits. The plan included a classification into four groups largely on a basis of age and ability to read, a flexible daily program of never more than sixteen recitations, and the elimination of the report card, the quarterly examination, the copy book, the spelling book, and such texts as a primary physiology and language book, and also every nerve-racking, envy-creating artificial stimulus.

The "A" group included five boys and two girls from fourteen to seventeen years, intelligent, hopeful young folks, only two of whom could read as well as the average sixth grade pupils. Very soon they were named the "senior group," thus removing the stigma of an eighth grade classification in name and limitation of studies. The "D" group enrolled six little folks from five to seven years. Through the latter it was possible to win general

confidence, not only because of the ease and rapidity with which they read, wrote, dramatized, etc., but also because it afforded the other pupils opportunity to strengthen weak places in their educational structures; whereas the senior group with mature minds and awakened ambitions, quickly became valuable aids in interpreting the purpose and procedure of the school to the community. Here, too, was the first social unit, organized within ten weeks as a parliamentary body, self-styled "The Shakespeare Reading Circle."

Among other things, the general program contemplated teaching children how to read and what to read; developing in them power to think, to study, to speak and write good English, to appreciate somewhat the beauties and marvels of nature in their environment; developing in them a respect for *all* kinds of labor well performed; convincing them that farming is a fundamental occupation and that it is as respectable to be a good farmer-citizen as to be a good merchant; giving them a vision of a realizable country home, and ambition to own one and be a worthy inmate of such home. There was never any thought of "vocationizing" the school or condemning all children to the farm regardless of capacity for another life.

Realizing that the welfare of the children demanded a mutual interest and understanding between parent and teacher, ways were discovered that first year to secure the presence of parents on such special occasions as Thanksgiving and Christmas Days, Washington's Birthday, and Arbor Day. Invitations motivated the English and handwork. The programs built from regular school work soon had the desired effect on pupils as well as on parents who found literature, history, and music, through the medium of their children, interesting and instructive. The teacher did not fully realize then the large results that were to follow these simple beginnings.

The frequency and quality of such meetings improved with the passing years. Never was Shakespeare more thoroughly enjoyed than by this community when they saw their sons and daughters, correctly costumed, in a very creditable interpretation of "The Merchant of Venice," the play being preceded by a sketch of the author and the story of the play, this for obvious reasons. It can readily be seen that because of the dramatization of such literature as "Miles Standish," "The First Christmas Tree," "The Christmas Carol," etc., the younger children early learned to enjoy Longfellow, Van Dyke, Dickens, and began to build their personal libraries.

The music hunger of the community was early revealed, and by the summer of 1915 there were thirty-two young folks studying music—the school house serving as a studio. Today, good music, vocal, piano, and band, is at all times at the command of the community. There came the day when the community band furnished the summer concerts for Kirksville, in this way earning a large part of their director's salary.

Unconsciously, old and young had been "going to school" together, and the original fear that the new régime would enforce a high school entailing general bankruptcy had given way by 1917 to a determination that their

children should have such opportunity in the *home environment* during their formative years.

The 1922 program of exercises carries this information: "The high school annex was made possible by cooperation. We are especially grateful to I. A. Novinger for the building and to Margaret Crecelius without whose most generous service this could not have been done." It recites further the important fact that the state high school inspector reported approval of twelve and one-half units of "a superior grade of work."

Outstanding numbers on this program were,—*"Influence of Invention on our National Life," "Conservation," "Our Immigrant Problem," "Our Next Step—the Farm or the City?"* and a clever class prophecy given as a one act play entitled *"in 1942."* The members of this class were the little "D Group" of 1912. Their elementary work and three years of acceptable high school work were done in ten years of eight months each.

As I faced those twenty-three rather unpromising looking children in 1912, I could not then measure their potentiality, nor did I imagine that so much *could* be done for their development in this type of school.

It is also worthy of note that in a district which boasted of not one high school graduate previous to 1912—100 percent of the elementary output were now voluntarily seeking a high school education, some more, and that all were honor senior high school students in Kirksville, and are also outstanding students in the state teachers college.

Enough has been suggested to conclusively demonstrate that the open country has natural advantages for its children superior to those in the city situation requiring only a qualified teacher to utilize these; that country children have capacity for highest types of citizenship, and that rural people respond quickly to leadership in the interest of their children; that here is the place for teacher-leadership; that the teacher must be a part of the community; that this school *can* and must become the clearinghouse for the social, intellectual, and economic interests of that community—a distributing center of efficiency, if you please, for in the typical situation which lacks hall, library, and church, it is not conceivable that the school can play its legitimate part for childhood without making the school so react on the home as to get in turn the desired reaction of the home on the school.

Only in this way can modern ideals of education be realized in these small rural schools, and the solution lies in a living wage, a small livable home near the school, a three years' contract allowing common sense adjustment of the traditional course of study and curriculum binding only so long as both parties are satisfied, all of which would attract men and women *qualified in service* and with *ideals of service* to this field.

When will this great association have made the necessary research to cause all state departments of education to give necessary freedom to qualified teachers? When will all state teachers colleges provide adequate preparation of teachers for this school? Our national life lies so close to the soil—there is grave danger in delay.

This is the challenge of rural childhood to the educational forces of this country.

OPENING ADDRESS

JESSE H. NEWLON, FIRST VICE-PRESIDENT OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION AND SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, DENVER, COLO.

The political, industrial, and territorial expansion of the United States in the past hundred and fifty years has been matched by the development of its educational system. The founders of the republic believed that a system of popular education was essential to the success of the great experiment in representative government. Repeatedly we find in their writings recognition of the fact that popular education and popular government must go hand in hand; that one is essential to the other. The labors of Thomas Jefferson in behalf of education make one of his greatest contributions to the development of our nation. He considered the founding of the University of Virginia a greater achievement than the presidency of the United States, and Benjamin Franklin was equally great in science, education, and statecraft.

I shall content myself with one quotation which vividly states the attitude of many of the great leaders of that day towards education. James Madison said:

A popular government without popular information or the means of acquiring it is but a prologue to a farce or a tragedy, or perhaps both. The best service that can be rendered to a country, next to giving it liberty, is in diffusing the mental improvement equally essential to the preservation and enjoyment of that blessing.¹

There is no more romantic story in history than that of the expansion of the United States of America in the first hundred and fifty years of its existence. The pioneers crowded a thousand years of economic and social development into the brief space of a century and a half. This period witnessed the most marvelous development in the field of science and industry that the race has known. In 1926 we are the richest, the most powerful nation on the globe. In 1776 we had only the meager beginnings of a school system. The development of education has kept pace with territorial and economic expansion.

The most important fact to be remembered about schools as we celebrate the sesquicentennial of the Declaration of Independence is that our system of education, including the high school as a part of the common schools, great tax-supported and privately endowed institutions of higher learning, compulsory education laws, schools for vocational education, technical schools, magnificent school buildings and equipment, an army of eight hundred thousand teachers, have come because modern civilization demands such a system of schools for its existence and growth.

Just prior to the great war between the states, the National Education Association was formed. By that time the evolution in education was bringing into existence a profession of teaching, and those who were engaged in this work were becoming conscious of their distinctly professional

¹ *Cyclopedia of Education*. Monroe, Paul, Macmillan Co., New York, 1919.

problems. It was only a small band of the more devoted members of the teaching profession who brought into existence this great association in the year 1857. With only three or four interruptions, the National Education Association has held annual meetings since that time.

In the last generation, the methods that had long been applied to the study of natural phenomena were applied to the study of education, with the result that education has taken its place among the sciences. Today, mastery of subject-matter alone does not prepare one for teaching. Hand in hand with mastery of subject-matter must go mastery of what has been learned about the educative process. Teaching has become a profession, with its own body of professional knowledge and technics.

In its earlier years, the National Education Association was composed primarily of those who were responsible for the administration and supervision of education, but as the years have gone by classroom teachers in ever-increasing numbers have become members. Today the Association numbers a hundred and sixty thousand members. It serves as a great clearinghouse for educational ideas. Through committees, through its representative assembly and its great departments, assisted by a professionally trained staff, it is concerned with the study of every problem that pertains to the advancement of education in this country.

A hundred and fifty years ago the fathers of the republic considered a system of popular education as essential to the success of representative government. But their concept of education was very narrow compared with present-day ideas. Today we hear on every hand criticisms of the schools. Many of the evils or fancied evils of the day are laid to the alleged ineffectiveness of educational methods. We are told that if the schools were functioning as they should there would be less crime and a greater respect for law; that if the schools were doing their full duty in respect to moral education our people would exhibit more moral stamina. We are told that if the schools were as effective as they ought to be in training for citizenship there would be less of indifference to civic duties; that more than fifty percent of the legal voters of the United States would exercise the right of suffrage in a presidential election.

Students of the history of education know that ever-increasing demands have been put on the schools during the period of our national life. In colonial days no one thought of holding the schools responsible for moral and civic training. It was the business of the school to give the individual the tools with which he could acquire the knowledge necessary to an intelligent exercise of his duties and responsibilities as a citizen. To the home and the church was left the chief responsibility for character building.

James E. Russell has very aptly characterized the changed conditions. He says that:

The acceptance of good citizenship as the dominant aim in public education imposes a severe burden upon teachers who have grown up under conditions hitherto generally prevailing. What is a good citizen? What should he know? What

should he do? Reduced to concrete terms, answers to these questions will try the best of our social philosophers.

What are the significant facts concerning education to be emphasized in this sesquicentennial year? I shall attempt to answer briefly.

1. A system of education extending from the kindergarten to the graduate school and including numerous technical, professional, and vocational schools, is indispensable to a modern democratic society. The evolution of our system of education has been brought about by the changes that have come in American life.

2. Power to adapt itself to changing conditions is an essential characteristic of an effective system of education.

3. To meet the needs of American life in the next generation or in the next century and a half, our system of education must continually adapt itself to the changes that will come about in the social, economic, and political life of the American people. The perpetuation and growth of American ideals is dependent on such a system of education.

I hold these truths to be self-evident. Critics to the contrary, notwithstanding, the American public schools have not failed the republic. They have given it life.

Truth is not restrained within national boundaries. The scholar, the teachers, and the university have ever been the greatest factor in the cultivation of international good will. In 1923 the National Education Association recognized the need of a closer cooperation between the teachers of the nations and called the first World Conference on Education to meet in the city of San Francisco. Last year the second world conference was held in Edinburgh, and a permanent organization was formed. Who can tell what blessings may be brought to mankind in the next century and a half through this cooperation among the teachers of the nations?

The major objective of the National Education Association and kindred organizations in the states and territories of the nation is to assist in bringing about, through a process of orderly evolution, the constant adaptation of our system of education to the everchanging needs of national life. No voluntary professional association in all the world is concerned with policies more far-reaching in their effect on the happiness of our people and on the development of civilization.

It is fitting that the National Education Association should meet in this memorial year in Philadelphia, the first capital of the nation. We, the representatives of the teachers of America, have come to this birthplace of the nation to rededicate ourselves to the service of our country "that this nation under God shall have a new birth of freedom, and this government of the people, by the people, and for the people shall not perish from the earth."

I count it a great honor, on the 28th of June, 1926, within a few days of the one hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the Declaration of Independence, officially to declare the Sixty-fourth Annual Meeting of the National Education Association in session.

THE DECLARATION AND THE SCHOOLS

WILLIAM McANDREW, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, CHICAGO, ILL.

The Declaration won immediate acclaim. It put into simple form and happy phrase ideas familiar and widely approved. The signers represented men afire from the friction of a powerful government grinding upon the large and little affairs of the day's work. Resolved upon escape, they sought to show a decent respect for the opinion of mankind by a list of the reasons for starting a government of their own. The bulk of the Declaration, as you well remember, consists of recitals of the repeated injuries and usurpations by the King of Great Britain. Few of us care much about them now. If any king since George III desired to repeat the acts enumerated, his chances dwindled to the vanishing point. But in the expression of the general principles which were declared as major premises to justify our independence there are thoughts in the Declaration still considered vital. These are the ideals by which the free nation was to work out its destiny.

In 1776 we accepted them as axioms. We held them as truths not needing any argument. We declared them self-evident. All men are born equal. They are endowed with certain unalienable rights. The most important are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. Government is for the purpose of securing these. Government depends on the consent of all the people; when government fails to give us our rights it is our duty to abolish it and to institute a new system. This should not be done for light and transient causes; but when there is a long train of abuses and usurpations, we must reform our social, our political scheme. This was the original American gospel. The first and fundamental principle of it is equality. It is the only feature I will discuss here.

As different states of this union, after the Revolution, composed their constitutions, they wrote this proposition into their fundamental laws. Says Massachusetts in 1780: "All men are born free and equal." Says New Hampshire in 1784: "All men are born equally free and independent." In this manner began the constitutions of newer states. "Equal rights" resounded the world over as the American salute of a new day. Scottish poets glorified it in song; royal personages made it their motto, foreigners carved upon their civil palaces: Liberty, equality, brotherhood.

The great desertion—The doctrine of equality has waxed and waned during these hundred fifty years. The most formidable attacks upon it belong to the forty years beginning in 1826. We shall consider the earlier defections in a few moments. In the generation before our civil war, equality, the right of a man to his life, and his liberty, if that doctrine were applied to men of a certain color, meant an overturn of existing laws and usages and, so said many prominent men, was a danger to the union itself. Therefore, even in America, innumerable persons of high standing, of distinguished talent, addressed themselves to arguing into nothingness the proposition of our national charter. Comes Rufus Choate with his ridicule of "the glittering and sounding generalities" of the Declaration. Comes

Governor Hammond with the explanation that "our forefathers were too excited and angry to tell the truth." Comes the Reverend Ross with the charge that "every word of it, every jot and tittle is the claim of infidels." Comes Calhoun with the argument that "equality must be the equality of citizens in the eyes of the law, but to establish an equality of condition of all men would be to destroy both liberty and progress."

Perhaps you are familiar with some of the various attempts at ridicule upon the signers for their absurdities. Every few years somebody discovers that the framers of the Declaration were crazy. Everybody knows that men are not born equal. Willy Thompson was born with an impediment in his mouth; Percy du Mond, with a silver spoon in his. Rosa Nixon, with the countenance of an angel; Ann Simons with a face to stop the whole industry of Waterbury. In the birth record of Philadelphia, July 3, is recorded: "Born to William Wilson and Jane, his wife, a son; nine pounds; and to George Carver and Ann, his wife, a daughter, 12 pounds." Is 9 the same as 12? On the committee which framed the Declaration of equality was Doctor Benjamin Franklin, in the front rank of men of science, a pursuit hostile to wild generalities, a cult which measures, and weighs, especially words. On the committee and charged with the wording of the document, was Mr. Jefferson, also a scientist, a lawyer, trained in careful and exact speech. How shall we account for their setting down in the most important document ever attempted in their lifetime a dictum so absurd?

The gleam of a great hope—A glance at the Declaration itself, settles the manufactured difficulty.

Men are created equal insofar as certain unalienable rights are concerned, born equal in their right to life, born equal in their right to happiness. To secure for ourselves and our posterity these rights to life, liberty, and happiness, we unite in an organization. We call it a nation; we call it a government; we call it the U. S.—us. How simple it is! how sensible! how old! how holy! "For God hath made of *one* blood" not of two bloods, blue blood and paler blood, high-born blood and low-born blood, but "God hath made of one blood all nations of men for to dwell on all the face of the earth."

Through the ages for almost two thousand years, runs this bright thread, this hope of humanity that all men are children of one father, even God, and are brothers, every one. The determined men in the old State House in the City of Brotherly Love caught the gleam of it. They may have been excited; they may have been angry; they may have had a meager knowledge of history, law, and government; they may have underestimated the selfish instincts of mankind; but they proclaimed a humane and generous idea. They exalted equal justice higher than power, patience above persecution, good will more than hate, peace superior to war. They pledged us to a Declaration that beneath the accidents and fortunes that make distinctions between men and nations there lies a common humanity, to recognize which

makes for concord upon earth instead of strife. In declaring this, the men of '76 reached an exalted state of political enthusiasm, a civic ecstasy. Such moments of glory brighten the world for a time and grow dim in a cloud of argument, expediency, and fear of being too good.

The best thought of the best men in their best moments runs at least three risks of corruption. The supply of best men varies, or they run short of best moments, or they substitute some of their second-best thoughts. Although the opposition after 1826 was the most brilliant it was not the first. Within a year of the signing some of the supporters of the Declaration were proposing that the curse of the country is equality. With the heat of the war cooled down there were not lacking Roger Shermans to assert that the people should have as little as possible to do with the government, Elbridge Gerrys to declare that men are suffering from too much democracy, Alexander Hamiltons to say that the public is but a big beast, many prosperous patriots to believe:

When everyone is somebody
No one is anybody.

The return of the faith—As long as Mr. Jefferson lived, and that was fifty years after the signing, his rejection of artificial distinctions rejoiced a multitude. General Washington and Mr. Adams, in presidential functions, had maintained much of the formality of a court. When Mr. Jefferson became president, the manager of these ceremonies asked him what would be the official order of precedence in going into dinner: should the Secretary of the Navy go ahead of the British minister or chase him, as the navy had the habit of doing when the English was in front of it? Mr. Jefferson proposed: "Let the order of precedence be this, that when dinner is announced those who are nearest the door shall go in first.

When Jefferson died and the second fifty years of our existence had well advanced, the number of admittedly best people who knew better than the framers of the Declaration was imposing. In the ranks of the anti-equality expounders were almost all of those who call themselves the leaders: thriving merchants, pastors of rich churches, public officials, college professors. But still, clinging to the improbable doctrine, was a multitude composed of the every-day common man, the sort of human stuff that was the first foundation of the country. He pushed one of his own into the nation's first place. In a superb burst of confidence and power, the American doctrine gets itself reaffirmed; "Our fathers brought forth a new nation dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal."

Whenever before had a nation been dedicated, consecrated, to a proposition? Religion had been so consecrated; churches had been thus dedicated. The United States had been in this manner founded, and had seen its underpinning chipped and chopped at by their own brilliant sons. But the Declaration, doubted, sneered at, discarded by many during a generation, is redeclared upon the field of Gettysburg within the memory of some among you here. If anyone is entitled to tell what the American doctrine is it

must be the world-accredited United States' representative, Mark Twain: "With us, no one is born with a right to look down upon his neighbor and hold him in contempt."

Where we come in—What particularly concerns this assemblage is by what means the first proponents of this American doctrine intended it should chiefly be kept alive. All of the most eminent of them made themselves clear on that point. From their speeches, their pamphlets, their letters, their conversations, comes the repeated agreement that the agency for promoting this ideal shall be a system of public schools. They get it into one of their earliest and most important laws; "As necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall be forever encouraged." Here is the Revolution with a big R. To take a process like education, which for thousands of years had been the power and ornament of the better-born, the possession of "the gentleman and scholar," the emphasis on distinctions among men, and to make it the promoter of equality, is an amazing proposal. But no one who listens to the men of the Declaration can fail to grasp this meaning. You and I, looking down the vista of these one hundred fifty years, will see against that sunrise of '76 the fingers of Washington, Franklin, Adams, Madison, Monroe, Jefferson, pointed straight at us. You and I can hear the voices of DeWitt Clinton, of Webster, of Mann, of Stephens, of Lincoln, of Grant, of Hayes, of Garfield, of Roosevelt, of Wilson, of Harding, and Coolidge, of statesmen more than scholars, they all said it: "You teachers, are the appointed and ordained Evangels of the nation's gospel. No scholarship, learning, or culture of your old education may be put before this: to train the people to a more perfect union, to justice, to domestic tranquillity, to the common defense, to the general welfare." The idea of equality—equality in the clear, dignified, and generous sense in which the Fathers conceived it—gleams bright in each constitutional requirement of our service.

We are the commoners—We find ourselves peculiarly circumstanced to carry on this mission. The number of high-born among us is not oppressive. Sons and daughters of laborers, we carry in our blood, the healthy distaste of snobbery. Some of us break out now and then with an itching for what we call "the aristocracy of brains." Some of us love to be called of men Rabbi, Rabbi, or to make wide our phylacteries on graduation day, and to deck ourselves in academic confectionery; but the old breeze of American ridicule will save us from carrying our mortar boards too high. On our regular working days, when we are properly clothed and in our right minds, do you know of any place where rich and poor, black and white, clean and dirty, can come nearer to equal rights than in the American schoolroom?

We have been put to some trial to get and hold our own equality. The school folk of '76 had amongst them enough scum of the earth to make them doubtful agencies for levelling up a nation. The genial Irving did us damage by collecting so much pettiness, cowardice, and contemptibility and labelling it "Ichabod Crane, Schoolmaster." In my own day I have seen

a marvellous lessening of inequality. The pompous pedagogical oracle in long coat and commanding style, the old settler who settled by his say-so every point in his teachers' meetings, the super-superior, grows fewer and farther between. He is levelling himself down. The sad-eyed sisters of sorrow who came mournfully among us to escape the alms and would make a poorhouse of the schoolhouse, do not wail so numerously as was their wont. There are a few left who persuade magazines to give rewards to those of us who will smear the most sobbs over our service—the size of the prize depending on the size of the sighs. But the number of us who has discovered that mankind despises a despiser, has, according to statistician Tigert increased 257 percent in 25 years. The last educational measurement survey demonstrates that the teachers' complaint of teaching is as the square of the distance from the real purpose of teaching, to wit: general welfare, not personal warfare.

According to the observations of the not over-optimistic Mark Twain, Elbert Hubbard, Walter H. Page, Brand Whitlock, Don Seitz, and Calvin Coolidge, checked by the statistical department of the Literary Digest, the American teacher has arrived at equality, and the only persons who do not know this are not of the general public but a few noisy survivors of the ancient tribe of the Kickapoos. This equality has not been achieved by self-pity nor by sniveling over contemptuous treatment, nor by rebellion, nor by adroit politics, nor by loud clamor for recognition, nor by a superior display of scholarship. The most distinct variation in the method of the teacher accompanying and justifying the change of public attitude from contempt to regard, has been the teachers' discard of self-conceit, assumed superiority, tyranny, severe correction, sarcasm, physical and mental punishment. In their stead have come professional preparedness, quiet self-respect, good manners, participation in social life, companionability, gentleness, affection.

How we achieved equality—Many of you here present are so used to these things that you can't understand how great a transformation it is. Mark Twain called it the marvel of our age. "We used to have to be driven to school," he said, "but I now know schools from which you have to drive the children home." My mother cried when she took me to school. When I recall the Great Stone Face in whose charge she left me, I don't wonder. But if that classroom had been in charge of any one of the hundreds of bright women whom I see every day in schools I think I should have cried if mother hadn't let me stay.

Oh, pshaw! You can't put across the old inferiority stuff any longer. There isn't enough of it left. A committee of this association collected last September a great pile of newspaper accounts of the opening of schools in every state in the Union. No more of the old assumptions that Johnny hates his school and his teacher. On the contrary a country-wide record in the rural weekly and the city daily press that the American school has

become an attractive resort—for the main reason that it is in charge of persons desirable to be with.

Hear, then, this sentiment to explain our realization of an American ideal: "The teachers; our fathers feared them; our children love and respect them and therefore, so do we."

The look on the level—Therefore, dearly beloved, having put off all hope of dominating by our superior learning, having cast aside the inferiority complex inherited from the days before the Revolution, having learned that it is unAmerican to look up to men too much, or to look down upon them at all, let us look on the level, and diligently teach our young citizens this duty of generous equality to all,—a national trait which the founders signed the Declaration to bring to pass. For in this observance of equality abideth the faith, the hope, and the brotherhood, without which our Republic must cease to be.

INTRODUCTION OF PRESIDENT McSKIMMON

JESSE H. NEWLON, FIRST VICE PRESIDENT OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, AND SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, DENVER, COLO.

The advancements that have been made in the social, economic, and political life of the American people are most strikingly illustrated by the new status of woman. The development of our national life has brought to them innumerable opportunities. A century and a half ago it was unthinkable that women should become in great numbers the teachers of youth. Here and there might be found a woman teaching a class of girls, but the people had not dreamed that women would enter business and the professions. Today the majority of the army of eight hundred thousand teachers in America are women, and among the honored names in education in our generation are found the names of women. The National Education Association elected its first woman president, Ella Flagg Young, in 1911, only fifteen years ago. She had by sheer ability risen to the high office of superintendent of schools in the second city of America and one of the largest cities in the world.

It is fitting that on the one hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the Declaration of Independence a woman should be president of the National Education Association. This woman enjoys all the rights and all of the responsibilities of an American citizen. When Thomas Jefferson wrote the Declaration of Independence, it probably did not occur to him that there must be another declaration of independence; that in this great nation women as well as men must be made free.

Mary McSkimmon, the President of the National Education Association, has had a notable career as teacher and as principal of a great elementary school. The election of an elementary school principal as president of the National Education Association carries with it recognition of the fundamental importance of the elementary school in our system of education and in the life of the nation.

Miss McSkimmon served for five years as president of the Massachusetts Federation of Teachers. She has long been an active and forceful leader in the affairs of this Association. She is a distinguished daughter of New England, the mother of our public school system.

I now have the pleasure of presenting to you Miss Mary McSkimmon, the President of the National Education Association.

THE CHALLENGE OF CHILDHOOD

MARY McSKIMMON, PRINCIPAL, PIERCE SCHOOL, BROOKLINE, MASSACHUSETTS, AND PRESIDENT OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

One hundred and fifty years ago the founders of our government, in words that shall not perish while the English language is spoken, laid with an exalted courage seldom equaled in human adventure that foundation stone of our liberty upon which the lofty turrets of a great and free people have been reared. Our beloved and beautiful word, education, does not appear therein, but the soul of the American people has found it implied in every one of those noble sentences, for no people crippled by the bonds of ignorance could either attain or preserve the independence this great Declaration was pledged to accomplish.

Twenty-six of the signers were college graduates; others had been educated at home. Every word that has come down to us from the stately language in which the document was couched to the fragments of their discussions, which by devious paths are yet our inheritance, bespeaks the masterly power of thought and expression in noble speech that is the possession of the trained mind alone. The three of the signers from Massachusetts, besides Benjamin Franklin, of Pennsylvania, who had received all his schooling there, had been members of the first public school in the Colonies, the Boston Latin School started in 1635, made a public school by public taxation for its support in 1647. I have heard Edward Everett Hale say that their signatures on the Declaration were faithful specimens of the penmanship taught by the schoolmaster, Nathaniel Williams. Public schools had already begun to make a mark that was to last.

Sixty-nine years ago the National Education Association was born in this same great city. What was its object? Here is what they said in the Proceedings for Organization: "We call to all practical teachers who are willing to promote the educational welfare of our country, by concentrating the wisdom and power of numerous minds, and by distributing among all, the accumulated experiences of all who are ready to devote their energies and contribute of their means to advance the dignity, respectability, and usefulness of their calling; and who, in fine believe that the teachers of the nation should be gathered into one great Educational Brotherhood."

There is not the slightest reference to the child that gave these dignified workers their excuse for working. The dignity, respectability, and usefulness of their calling seems to be wholly apart from any solving of problems arising in the teaching of children. Do you suppose they dreamed that

they had any responsibility for the misbehavior of the children of the next generation, pilloried by that keen satirist, William James, in "Daisy Miller," whose naughty little brother stands out for all time as a specimen of the age? Do you not believe that if in that far beginning they had undertaken to study the material with which they worked, the children in their schools, that the emolument and dignity they craved might have come a little sooner? That is the thesis upon which the program of this, the second meeting of the National Education Association in Philadelphia, is based.

The challenge of childhood is the sevenfold one so often held to our united attention by the gifted editor of our Journal and now woven into the consciousness of this great army of the National Education Association. It is because we have already accepted this challenge that we are no longer alien sections or states or counties or cities but a united educational system holding common viewpoints. Any one of us may cross the continent, visiting a school every one hundred miles, and in every school find himself among friendly children with a feeling of perfect ease and contentment. The year has given me this wonderful opportunity, one of the most delightful that can ever come to any teacher.

Everywhere that this golden trail has led me, I have found this remarkable truth—the children are unfailingly like those I left behind in all the realities of life. Once in a while the accent or vowel values of the words of the teacher made me conscious of how different my Yankee speech must sound to her, but the children seemed unaware of any difference. They listened with the same kindly indifference to certain professionally important platitudes, as untouched as my own, but kindled with eager joy when life—earnest, vibrant life—arrested their attention. I have no doubt that the service rendered by William Dawes at the time of the daring drive to Lexington and Concord was as important as that of Paul Revere, but I can testify that the poet has made Paul Revere the beloved heritage of every American child with whom I have talked. This thing is sure: the deeds that led to the signing of the Declaration of Independence are the common bond between the children of the American nation.

How the study of the problems of childhood have united us! Is anything in this Association more worthy of our earnest wonder than this spirit of being one in heart and mind throughout the land? We have no national system of education and yet with these common ideals and common aspirations born of thoughtful counsel for the solving of our mutual problems, we are coming into a new unity. One of us may go from Eastport to San Diego to teach and find the waiting task essentially what was left behind. Through this mingling of teachers in our Association of all rankings, in working together on committees, in departments, in the groupings about common interests, we are developing a system of education that is beginning to take on a national color and is hastening the day when as a nation we may lose our provincialisms and learn to take a more inclusive point of view.

The first note of the challenge is health. Has the school answered this challenge? What more gigantic task has it ever faced so unflinchingly? Through requiring vaccination for admission to school, smallpox is no longer a horror to be reckoned with. The Schick immunization has already protected children from diphtheria wherever it has been applied. All schools are teaching cleanliness and the great help that milk, as diet, renders the growing child. There is ready response in this country to demands for clean teeth ever since our boys paraded Piccadilly and Trafalgar Square and heard the delighted populace cry, "Smile, Sammy, Smile!" Even the primary child knows what his weight ought to be, and the value of fresh air, day and night, and sunshine, and play.

When the National Congress of Parents and Teachers started the campaign for the round-up of the five and six-year olds in thirty states last summer, that every little beginner might be ready for school in the fall, a mighty public American object lesson was given to all communities. There is hardly a state in the Union that is not lined up through its boards of health to carry forward the means of making one hundred percent of our little beginners fit to go to school this fall. But you will have to take your year's pilgrimage up and down this land to see the glory of the new school buildings of today set in their ten, sixteen, and twenty-acre playgrounds and realize the sensible uses these great breathing places are being put to. No wonder we are told that the child born today has a safe hope of adding twelve years to the span of his grandfather's years. In the progressive school systems, the old textbook study of anatomy, physiology, and hygiene has already given place to health education. Health habits are taught and tested. Health examinations are being slowly but permanently established. Following the examination comes a suggested follow-up program for correction of remediable health defects, such as malnutrition and functional disorders caused by bad posture, all of which may be tested and corrected in the school, while the more serious health conditions that require medical or surgical care are brought to the attention of the home.

The second challenge of childhood is for skill in using the tools of learning. The schools have always known their value. No one today can observe education long without knowing how much better the children gain possession of these tools than those of a previous generation. The Springfield tests of 1846, given recently to the Massachusetts children, have shown vast improvement in both accuracy and knowledge in arithmetic, spelling, and geography by the children of today. Our boys and girls probably read one hundred pages today for one read by their grandfathers. We have learned that the eye can be trained to increase its natural rate of motion, and we are helping children to increase their speed for informational reading. But when it comes to real literature, the great and beautiful words of poetry, the treasure that is our inheritance and our birthright, let us take time for that seed time of the soul, of which Wordsworth sang.

The teachers of America are meeting with increasing purposefulness the challenge of the children for tools. They remember what A. C. Benson

says of Bishop Westcott. The old idea of education was to induce our pupils to accept the gold coins of our own wisdom by trying to transfer them from our pockets to theirs. We know now that the only way to educate is to show the child where the ore is and to place in his hands the tools that will get the ore from the mine. We expect our pupils to free the gold from its dross and coin it for themselves.

Our next challenge is home membership. Our classes in domestic science, woodworking, repairing, interior decoration, cooking, serving, home furnishing, study of harmony of color, textiles, and laundry work show the widespread interest in making opportunities for children for having a share in helping to make homes beautiful, and to take that interest in their improvement that indicates a remarkable economic betterment. One of the finest fruits of the nature study in our schools is the increasing delight in the care and protection of bird life. And when our boys and girls have toiled over their own little gardens, their neighbors have a protection from the old lawless depredations that no iron wall could have given their treasured roses and lilies of the old day. Do you think people realize what it means today that priceless treasures of shrub and blossom grow absolutely unprotected by the old fence or wall of the past generation? This is a real test of right-minded home membership.

And the very courts themselves pay tribute to the decrease of juvenile delinquency. Our scientific measurements have helped us understand underlying causes of delinquency in children that could not be arrived at without this great service. As the variant is now being understood as never before, what wonder that the records of fourteen cities taken from the report of the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor shows a decrease in juvenile delinquency in every one, and is especially marked since 1920. Right-minded boards of education are providing opportunities for developing such abilities as the least-favored child possesses, and the gifted one, as important a problem as the other, is being studied and understood and given the chance to learn those experiences in knowledge and the society of his contemporaries that shall give the power of leadership for which he was endowed. Children are better school members with their willingness and efficiency in taking on responsibility for the bettering of conditions therein. They are better members of the neighborhood and the playground. Surely they must be increasingly more helpful, more thoughtful, more efficient members of the home.

What of the challenge of citizenship? The school is more interested in this subject than ever before in the history of American education. How much more intelligent it is to emphasize those principles of government by putting them into daily school life than to depend upon the learning of bare facts from a textbook! How our Good Citizen clubs help in serving the school by caring for play-grounds, lawns, and shrubbery, our Patrol clubs, helping younger children to cross the streets safely, taking charge of classes entering and leaving the building, serving at fire drills having responsibility for the care of lunchrooms and corridors, doing the faithful service of a devoted citizen for the safety and beauty and well-being of

public property; all for service and nothing for reward! Isn't this a splendid foundation for the discussion of civic problems in the classroom? It is hard to believe that our pupils thus trained will not show by means of the ballot the appreciation of the great principle of self-government for which our fathers died. If the same indifference to the duty of each citizen's responsibility to the faithful exercise of suffrage should go unchecked by every means possible in the schools, then shall we indeed be failures and unworthy of our great inheritance. May a great light be kindled within us and passed on to the generation now in school, whereby we may both see our responsibility to meet the challenge of a loyal citizenship that will preserve and develop the inestimable blessings of life under the Constitution of a land where opportunity to achieve and to be gleams like Sirius in the crystal air of a January night.

And what about the challenge of leisure? If we have not in the past been so keen about this, it is because we hardly know it as a reality in our own profession. To most of us, the summer vacation means attendance at professional classes either as teacher or student, or returning to the old home to care for invalid parents or assist in lightening labor for others. It means preparation and study during the spare moments of term time, or it means giving special help to some backward pupil. The more the school fills its supreme place in the community, the less chance there is for a leisure hour. If all our pupils were to become members of our profession, the use of leisure would not be a problem to consider; it would take care of itself.

It was a wise old priest who said, "I give my forenoons to God; I give my afternoons to my fellowmen, and I give my evenings to myself." We know that work, service, play—all are needed for any adequately rewarding life.

Each has borne a part
And that a needful one
In making up the calm existence that is mine,
When I am worthy of myself.

There are those of us to whom books, through the noisy turmoil of our busy days, make the same appeal that the bubbling spring of cold water does to the parched traveler. No worthier effort can engage the teacher than awakening this love. Given eyes that see correctly, with training to read rapidly enough to satisfy the hungry mind, I believe all children may become possessors of this unmatched blessing. We must give them wide experiences in order to help them find their own stride. Did you ever know a boy who would not kindle to that alien world—poetry—through the magic of Alfred Noyes' "Highwayman," of Kipling's "The Bell Buoy"? They get away from the limitations of the noisy tenement district as they haul up the big cod into the Gloucester schooner in "Captains Courageous," and it is hard to keep from envying Stevenson, whose power to appeal to the imagination enlists every child to embark with old John Silver and the rest and sail joyously forth to Treasure Island. If you have never tried them on biography, you will get a real surprise. "Up from

Slavery" is an unfailing lodestone; so is "The Iron Puddler," and the "Americanization of Edward Bok."

No teacher who can walk with children into the field and woods, showing them the amazing plan by which the wild Iris or the fascinating Lady's Slipper solves its problem of fertilization; no one who has ever taught the children to listen to the song sparrow or the bobolink has failed to give seeing eyes and hearing ears for the later hours of leisure. And to show them noble Orion marching up the winter sky, following the Pleiades and Hyades into the zenith, will give the thrill that lasts while life lasts to those whose eyes have been opened to a matchless world of beauty and delight. The day is not far distant when whole communities will unite in beautifying desolate and ugly school grounds, laying out fields for outdoor sports, where every resident in the community may feel ownership because he has had a hand in providing an opportunity for community play.

What answer shall the American school make to the challenge of developing noble character? Through the better adaption of the school curriculum and its recognition that children have bodies as well as minds, the old importance of the discussion of discipline and punishment has passed. Initiative, leadership, responsibility have taken the places of coercion and autocracy. Nature study has abolished thoughtless cruelty, and school gardens have established respect for the property of others. Scientific mental testing has discovered the moral imbecile and has delivered the school from his baleful influence. The aid of the invaluable psychiatrist is helping boys and girls to solve their problems of maladjustment to the school, arising after bad conditions and experiences of broken home life or wrong treatment in preschool age. What untold blessings to the school have thus been wrought. The school children of a good school are better behaved today probably than children have ever been, in their attitudes toward dumb animals, toward each other, their teachers, and the world at large.

But enduring character is deeper than a casual live-and-let-live indifference. The kindly gesture toward his fellow beings must be wrought into habit that shall last and dominate his life; that shall be the conscious expression of right decisions made habitual, a source of power when his temper, or prejudice, or fear, would paralyze his will and chain power of right action. This growth in judgment and self-control in respect for law and the rights of others is not an achievement of days or months. It is a slow growth at best, for humanity is only in its cradle stage of self-government, and the constitutional democracy of our own land has not yet learned how to implant respect for the laws even in the hearts of the very men who have made them.

This slow growth in the elements of character needed to insure the safety of our kind of government is the unanswerable argument for the school age to be prolonged until that character which shall make right-minded citizenship has been developed. It is sometimes a slow growth. We have placed a standard of attainment in subject-matter achievement that must be reached before boys and girls can leave school. We must

see to it that years enough under the competent guidance of skilful and devoted teachers are allowed to give all children experience in putting into action again and again those great principles of conduct that are the guaranty of good character. It is the boy leaving school with unformed character who becomes the tool of unscrupulous men, and too often a criminal before the law.

Our Association mourns today the recent death of John F. Sims, the chairman of the Committee on Child Labor. We recall his real grief at last summer's meeting when his noble words rang out: "Opponents of child labor sacrifice childhood to money, education to cheap production and the amassing of wealth. They foster greed in the strong, hatred and discouragement in the weak." The recognition by Congress in conserving the childhood of America marks an epoch in our constitutional history fraught with wholesome, far-reaching results. Who can estimate the value of the child, the potential ruler and worker of the future? Let us be loyal to him.

"It is the function of the present generation to conserve the interests of the children so that in the springtime of life they may have abundant opportunity for the training that will so develop them that they may later discharge in full measure the duties and responsibilities of American citizenship."

The gracious soul of the man whose words remain to us has gone on its everlasting reward. We pay tribute to his noble service for the childhood of this land.

If we cared for the children as he cared for them, we should have come nearer accomplishing each in his own state what he so grandly won for Wisconsin. He lays upon us the challenge, the pitiful appeal of every child in the dreary drudgery of the mine, the exhaustion of the beet field, the deafening weariness of the factory, and the benumbing, stupifying toil of the mill. Rich and prosperous America will not long consent to receive dividends paid by the sacrifice of ambition, by the cost of health, by the price ignorance exacts. All right-minded citizens of this land will respond to our interest in the citizenship of tomorrow when we have that desire so alive in our own hearts that it springs forth like sacred fire, for the warming of the failing courage of young lives, bearing burdens too heavy for such tender years, and cut off from the one shining light that alone can illumine darkened minds, the beacon light of education. To whom shall the neglected child look if not to this Association of our country's teachers? We shall not fail you, neglected, forgotten, unschooled children of a favored land. I bring violets of loving reverence to the memory of the devoted love of John F. Sims.

Therefore bring violets. Yet if we, self-baulked,
Stand still, a-strewing violets all the while,
These moved in vain, of whom we have vainly talked.
So rise up henceforth with a cheerful smile,
And having strewn the violets, reap the corn,
And having reaped and garnered, bring the plough
And draw new furrows 'neath the healthy morn,
And plant the great Hereafter in this Now.

On that very first day of the first meeting in August, 1857, when the forerunner of our great Association came into existence in Philadelphia, in the opening address of T. W. Valentine, of New York, who had issued the call for the meeting, we find these significant words: "I trust the time will come when our government will have its Educational Department just as it now has one for Agriculture, for the Interior, and for the Navy." Surely these interests can not be more important than those which pertain to the intellectual and moral welfare of our people.

The forty-one brave men and the two braver women of the founders of this Association have given the finest evidence of their clear insight as to means to the great ends they sought to "promote the educational welfare of our country by concentrating wisdom and power of numerous minds, by distributing among all the accumulated experience of all." I ask you if that does not sound as if it were taken from the *Congressional Record* at the time of our February meeting. Shall we deny the faith of the founders? Shall we leave to those coming after us the work that ought to be done by us, today, in order to give the "dignity, respectability, and usefulness" that they pleaded for, to this great absorbing thing we call public education, the fourth leading industry in America? We know our needs are stupendous in importance today, the needs of research and the dissemination of its findings; we know the prestige that will be attached to the utterance of the Secretary of Education, for there is no one today in the whole field of education who has the authority to speak for all, whose utterances automatically demand attention, as coming from the cabinet of a President. If we can only hold to the faith of that far beginning and the truth we know of education's great need of having the authority to appeal to men who are doing the great work of our land but who do not yet take the problems of education seriously we shall arrive, the goal shall be won, not by the work of gifted leadership alone, illustrious and inspiring as ours is, but by the common service of every single member of the organization.

When Commander Byrd and Pilot Bennett were nearing the pole, where no human being had ever traveled through the air, in that ghostly land of ice and snow, silent save for the whirring of the Fokker, they discovered a leak in the oil tank. Bennett remarked that it looked bad. "But," narrated Commander Byrd, "we decided to continue on to the pole and to decide what to do to the leak afterwards." We seem to have been sixty-nine years worrying about the leaks people point out in our plans. Let us forget them all, and get on to the pole!

We have built splendid schools for carrying on the education of our children. We have equipped great normal schools and teachers colleges to train teachers for them. We have awakened to the importance of the preschool child, and with the parents we are studying the laws of physical and mental hygiene to prevent the waste of unnecessary disease. Our great playgrounds resound with the shouts of happy children. We are holding our youth to high school and college that it is the despair of boards

of education to try to keep up with the great young army seeking more, and ever more, schooling.

A few days ago in a school belonging to the county in Massachusetts in which Horace Mann was born, an eighth grade class in current events contributed their discoveries. One lad arose with his offering. The National Education Association will hold its annual meeting in Philadelphia June 27 to July 2. The program is based upon this subject, "The Challenge of Childhood to the Teachers of America." A silence filled the classroom for a moment. The teacher spoke, "Why do you suppose that subject was chosen?" "Probably they are going to count up the achievements of the American people because of the lessons all those teachers have taught," said George. "I think they will want to talk about what they can do to educate the children to become better citizens of America," said another. Then spoke still another, "I think they will talk about what kind of men and women we ought to be because of what our teachers have helped us to become."

Yes, dear children of our America, what you shall win of greatness and wealth, what wisdom and insight you shall bring to the government of your great heritage, what character you shall grave on the world, all these developments of your life shall have the first place in the service that crowns our days. Our hearts, our hopes are to be forever realized in this great adventure of yours that lies just beyond tomorrow's gates.

Girt with the fragile armor of Youth,
Child, you must ride into endless wars,
With the sword of protest, the buckler of truth,
And a banner of love to sweep the stars.

About you the world's despair will surge;
Into defeat you must plunge and grope—
Be to the faltering an urge;
Be to the hopeless years a hope!

Be to the darkened world a flame;
Be to its unconcern a blow—
For out of its pain and tumult you came,
And into its tumult and pain you go.

CAN WE GIVE A GOOD ACCOUNT OF OUR STEWARDSHIP?

EDWIN C. BROOME, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

If ten historians, or ten teachers, or ten lawyers, or ten business men or women should be requested each to mention the ten most important dates in the history of our country, it is probable that most of the important dates would appear. It is equally probable, however, that one of the most significant dates in the history of America, or, in fact, in the history of English-speaking people, would be omitted. That date is 1647; in that year the General Court of the Massachusetts Bay Colony decreed that every town having fifty householders should at once appoint a teacher of

reading and writing, and provide for his wages in such manner as the town might determine; and, that every town having one hundred householders must provide a grammar school to fit youths for the university. This was the first time in the history of English-speaking people that the state required its communities to establish and maintain schools. It was the beginning of our public schools.

The development of our present nation-wide system of public education from that small but significant beginning is familiar to all who are sitting in this assembly. During the last ten years the enrolment in public schools has increased about three times as much as the population. This would seem to indicate that the public schools are popular and are appreciated. If there is any doubt over this point, the fact that the enrolment in high schools, where attendance is not generally compulsory, has increased from eight to nine times as much as in the elementary schools, would seem to settle it. Today nearly a fifth of the people of the United States are going to school. We have the greatest system of popular education in the world. Education is Uncle Sam's most important industry.

We have gathered here from all parts of the country to exchange ideas and to discuss professional problems. The time, the place, and the occasion would seem also to offer an unusual opportunity for some serious reflection by an organization representing all the teachers of all the children of the nation. Our president has sounded the general theme as "The Challenge of Childhood to the Teachers of America." That is a beautiful thought around which to build a program. A corollary to that thought is this: Our responsibility to the American people for the trust that they have placed in our hands. Like the rich man described in the Gospel of St. Luke who returned from a journey and called his steward unto him, and said "Give an account of thy stewardship," the American people are saying to us today, "Give us account of your stewardship." Can we give a *good* account of our stewardship? *Our* masters, the American people, are asking us a number of questions, but they are especially insistent on satisfactory answers to three questions: First, are the schools not costing too much? Too much is a relative matter. The answer must be tempered by one's sense of values. Compared with what they spend for tobacco, chewing-gum, and applications to beautify the person, the American people are spending far too little on education. This is no especial reflection on the American people. For all time people have been willing to spend much more for the pleasures of the senses than for the satisfaction of the soul.

Let us go a little further. We are spending considerably more dollars on public schools today than we did ten or fifteen years ago. The important question is this: Can we justify this increase? Let us take the case of a city which is typical of most other cities. During the last ten years the number of dollars expended for education in that city has increased 150 percent. Seventy-five percent of this increase can be charged up to the depreciation of the dollar. Fifty percent can be explained by increase in enrolment, more especially because the enrolment in the grades above the sixth.

where education is most expensive, has increased eight times as much as that of the lower grades. The remaining twenty-five percent can be charged up to increased and extended service which the public itself has demanded:—such as Americanization and other forms of evening-school work, summer schools, increased medical and health service, and various types of special classes. In this particular city the people are receiving more and better service for every dollar expended than they did ten years ago. The funds are handled with scrupulous honesty, and there is practically no waste. Conditions in this city are fairly representative of conditions country-wide. We can honestly answer the first question by saying: “The American people are not spending enough money for the extent and quantity of the service demanded of their public schools.”

Second, our masters want to know whether or not the schools are as thorough as they used to be in the “good old days.” In 1905 an enterprising principal in Springfield, Massachusetts, found in an attic of an old school a bundle of examination papers that had been given in 1846. Questions and answers were intact. The examinations were in spelling, arithmetic, geography, and writing. The same examinations were given to pupils of about the same age and grade in 1905. The result when compared was a revelation. In every subject the children of 1905 surpassed their grandfathers by a wide margin. The aggregate difference in spelling, arithmetic, and geography was 70 persons. In writing the improvement was especially marked. The Springfield examinations were given in many places in this country, and the results were similar everywhere.

Examinations were also found which were given in the schools of Boston in 1845. Again these were given widely to pupils throughout the country in 1922. We have not the space to publish details. They may be found in an interesting book, *Then and Now in Education*. The results led the authors of this book to say that the tests “plainly indicate improvement in instruction.” If there ever were any “good old days” they must have been somewhere around 1845, as that was certainly long enough ago for all of the present generation to have safely forgotten the facts. Judging from all the evidence obtainable, we can still take comfort in the thought that the “good old days” in education are yet to come. Adults often judge the schools by the work of their own immature children; and quietly flatter themselves that they did much better at the same age. I have found myself doing the same thing in examining the work of my fourteen-year-old son; until one day I found in an old trunk in the attic a book of compositions which I had written during my first year in high school. Needless to say I have since made no reference to my superiority at his age.

Much of the complaint about lack of thoroughness in the essentials comes from business men who employ clerks and stenographers. Unfortunately they, as a rule, do not represent the best product of our schools. The best students usually go on to college, technical schools, and normal schools. The clerical force of the country is in a large measure recruited from those who for economic reasons, or because they could not keep up, leave school before completing the course. Our honest answer to the second question is

this: "The public schools are doing many things today that were not thought of years ago as belonging to the scheme of public education, and they are also doing the essentials better."

The third question which our masters put to us is this: Are the schools failing in the all-important work of character-building? This question can never be satisfactorily answered, because there are as many judges of right conduct as there are individuals.

The only answer to this question is a statement of facts. The school has supervision over the child five hours a day, for about two-thirds of the days of the year; the home and other institutions have charge of the child for the rest of the time. Moreover, it is doubtful that moral conduct can be definitely taught, like arithmetic or grammar. The character and influence of the environment, and the example of elders would seem to be of most effect. It would seem reasonable that the influences to which the child is longest exposed, that is for nineteen out of twenty-four hours of the day, would largely determine the final result. Those who are inclined to hold the public schools responsible for murder, banditry, arson, robbery, and other delinquencies, would do well to read what Judge Archbold, of the Juvenile Court of Los Angeles, said recently: "My observation leads me to believe that about 95 percent of the youthful delinquency today can for the most part be blamed *on bad home conditions.*" I would be the last person to place too much blame on the American home. It is the finest institution that America possesses; and we should use all our influence to strengthen it, rather than to discredit it.

There never has been a time in the history of our schools when more attention has been given, directly and indirectly, to character-building. The schools everywhere, public and private, are accepting this responsibility seriously and conscientiously. A sub-committee of the national Commission on the Curriculum has been studying this subject for a year. This is what they are able to report as a result of their country-wide investigation: "The schools of the country are giving universal and definite attention to the development of good character in the children entrusted to their care."

One of the most serious problems of the day is how to meet the growing tendency of the public of placing more burdens upon the schools through legislation, and through other forms of organized influence.

Akin to this problem is that of the benevolent exploitation of the schools by well-meaning, but often misguided, organizations and individuals in the interest of all kinds of enterprises. These people are not enemies of the schools. They are friends; but they don't realize that every such project, however important it may seem to them, only takes the precious time of the children whose school life is none too long and distracts teacher and pupils from the main business for which schools are maintained. A good question to ask when such projects are urged upon us is this: Who will benefit more from this enterprise, those who propose it, or the children? A truthful answer to this question, in every case, will eliminate ninety percent of the school distractions that have become so numerous since the war.

There are thousands of influential people in every city and town who would soon change from an attitude of indifference or criticism towards their schools to one of encouragement and support, if they understood what the schools are actually doing. This condition is a challenge to us. We must expect indifference, unjust criticism, and unintelligent interference, until every teacher, principal, and superintendent makes it his business to do or say something every day to somebody at home, in his club, or his church, or his lodge, that will inform the people correctly regarding the work of the schools, and will help to create an attitude of intelligent interest in public education.

There are some other important matters which we, as stewards, should attend to while we are putting our house in order. At least a quarter of the children of the country are still taught by unqualified, or under-qualified teachers. In places where that unfortunate condition exists, it is our business, as professionally minded teachers, members of a great professional organization of teachers, to bring about legislation, or to encourage boards of education to advance standards for admission to, and for promotion within the profession and to pay salaries that will attract to, and retain in the profession, teachers of adequate qualifications.

In spite of extensive efforts towards curriculum revision, we still have an overcrowded curriculum, and one that in many respects is not adapted to the needs of certain types of children. The Commission on the Curriculum is working heroically to bring about general curriculum revision throughout the country. This is an enormous task. We have already been at work three years; and the end is not yet in sight. No central commission can make an all-American curriculum, even if it were desirable. It can only furnish data, and show the way. There must be country-wide cooperation. In this we ask your assistance.

No public servants can give a better account of their stewardship than we. An honest accounting will present all in facts, whether favorable to the steward or otherwise. We have nothing to fear. No public institutes in America can face its master and give a better account of its stewardship than the public schools.

RADIO AND THE CHILD—ABSTRACT

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NEW YORK CITY

Within the past four years there has come into being a wonderful voice which can speak to the entire world. It is not restricted by the size of the auditorium nor to the distance between the speaker and the listener. It can appeal to the individual or to the multitude; it can use any language; break forth into song, or produce the tones of any musical instrument. We may well ask, What use will be made of this wonderful voice, the radio?

So far its principal use has been to entertain those who desire to listen to it. As we consider the uses to which this new medium of communication with the masses could be applied we can but stand in awe and pray that it may not be misused.

Under the circumstances it is evident that at present this new and wonderful medium of communication is far from accomplishing the results which it should. On the other hand it should be remembered that it is less than five years since it was first introduced to the American public and in that limited time has developed at a rate far in excess of any other medium of public communication.

During the first years of broadcasting the listeners were so thrilled by the mystery of radio transmission that the type and quality of the program was ignored; however, during the past two years there has been a remarkable change in this respect. The radio audience has become more critical of the program, the quality of transmission and reproduction. It is interesting and encouraging to note that the desires now expressed are for programs of better quality, both as to material and methods of presentation. There was a time when programs consisting of phonograph music would be accepted, but today the radio audience expects to hear the world's great musical artists, politicians, actors, explorers, and writers in person and attend the important public events of the day by radio, if not in person.

To secure the talent necessary to present a high grade musical program and to interest the leaders in the various arts in broadcasting is not an easy task, nor can it be done without expense. Another important factor in program arrangement and presentation are the personal views and desires of the owner or those operating the station. If they tend toward the better things in life, something worthwhile will result from their efforts, but on the other hand if the tendency is toward the sensational and burlesque type of program matter, much harm may result.

It should be remembered that radio programs enter the home without the producer ringing the doorbell and asking whether you wish him to enter. The child in the home can and does tune in to any program that is available and can absorb many things which he would not otherwise hear. Under these conditions, it is important that if radio is to accomplish the greatest good for the greatest number, it be in the hands of those who realize their responsibility to the listening public rather than in the hands of those who for publicity or other purposes will depreciate this medium of communication.

We have seen many articles in the public press calling attention to various experiments of an educational nature carried on by broadcasters throughout the country, both in the cities and rural sections. A number of educational institutions own and operate broadcasting stations, while other educational institutions are cooperating with broadcasters in developing ways and means of using their facilities for educational purposes. As far as it is known, up to this time the results of these separate experiments have not been collected and summarized.

Early in our study of broadcasting the question of its value as an educational medium was raised and arrangements were made with Columbia University to join with us in carrying out some experiments which might indicate its value for educational purposes in the metropolitan area. The first subject selected was one which from the start was felt would not be popular, but would indicate the minimum result. In addition to this a charge was made for a syllabus which could be used to advantage by those wishing to carry on a more extensive study of the subject. The experiment covered ten lectures of one half hour each on Robert Browning given during the evening hours. While the response from the audience was not large as compared with other program features it indicated that further experiments should be carried on. A series of lectures on Early American History, English Literature, Practical American Politics, and Psychology were presented during evening hours. In each case a syllabus was offered. These lectures were found to be more popular than the previous ones, but still far less popular than program features of an entertaining nature. Later a series of lectures in French were presented and on account of their popularity are being continued.

In addition to these continued programs, experiments have been made with courses and individual programs covering specific subjects by instructors from the various departments of the university, principally those interested in home economics, including child care with special reference to the health and mental development of the preschool child. These have been given in the morning hours and have met with a very favorable response from women. These talks are being continued and will doubtless be increased as the morning audience is developed.

Among other experiments which we have carried on with educational institutions has been a series of talks to parents and children by a representative of the vocational training department of the board of education giving the possibilities in various lines of business and manufacturing establishments. This resulted in many inquiries from parents, children, young people already employed, and from those desiring to employ young people.

The Kansas State Agricultural College has for several years been actively engaged in the use of radio in connection with its extension work and has prepared and presented numerous lecture courses on agriculture, engineering, home economics, and general science. It is understood that their efforts along these lines have convinced them that radio is a very integral part of their extension service. Work of a similar character is being carried on by a number of other colleges and universities.

In cooperation with the music department of the New York board of education the principal broadcasters carried on an experiment in connection with their efforts to develop in school children an appreciation of good music. This consisted of broadcasting fifty selected compositions during a period of several weeks preceding a contest held in the schools in their annual Music Memory Week.

The board of education during the winter months gives a series of public lectures at various schools. The lecturers are available to broadcasting stations and they have broadcast during the morning hours, thus reaching a much larger audience.

The experiments mentioned indicate the principal applications of radio to educational subjects. Many modifications have doubtless been made by stations throughout the country.

Now, let us consider other radio program features that have an appeal to the child. As has previously been mentioned, the younger children of the radio audience have shown a decided preference for stories. During the first two years of radio broadcasting the so-called bedtime story was one of the most spectacular items on the radio program. The interest in this feature was usually created by giving the story teller a fanciful name, broadcasting the names of children during the story period, or sending them a picture or other prize in return for something which they would do for the broadcasting station.

Now, as to what radio has given and is now giving the child:

In music it has and is presenting the famous vocal and instrumental artists of the world and the principal symphony orchestras in their regular and educational concerts with explanations by such leaders in the musical field as Damrosch, Fleck, Hadley and others; the best in chamber music, band music, and orchestras; the important singing and glee clubs of the country. In addition to this, various musical organizations in the schools are given an opportunity to demonstrate their skill by broadcasting.

In literature, they are given the opportunity to hear Shakespeare, Dickens, and other standard authors presented by those who have made a special study of these works and are trained in their presentation.

They can hear well known authors in person or criticisms and reviews of modern literature by well-known critics.

What is true of literature is also true of art. The authorities on this subject lecture on various phases and branches and have aroused interest in museums and collections.

In science, radio presents to the child those prominent in scientific development and research. It also offers to those with mechanical skill the opportunity of making, for themselves and others, radio equipment, thus making a practical application of their theoretical knowledge.

By radio, matters of great importance in connection with personal and public hygiene are presented by authorized and responsible agencies.

It offers an opportunity of hearing the outstanding men of the nation and even the world in discussion of social, economic, and political problems.

The great sporting events of the day are made to live although not seen. The spirit and atmosphere of the baseball and football games are transmitted to the invisible audience and their interest and enthusiasm stimulated.

The new accomplishments of explorers, travelers, and adventurers are

told by them in person and the conferring of honors upon them are heard by all.

In religious matters an opportunity is given to hear the outstanding preachers of all faiths and a broader and better understanding of the fundamentals of religious belief developed.

Those broadcasters who are giving serious thought to the development of this new medium appreciate their limitations in handling this complex subject. So far the so-called educational program features have been individual experiments. There has been no systematic planning by the broadcasters and educators and much remains to be done individually and collectively before satisfactory results are obtained.

While it is possible, with proper presentation, by voice alone to stimulate and maintain the interest of the listener, such a method of teaching lacks the advantages of personal contact between the teacher and pupil in the classroom.

From our experience in presenting educational courses by radio it is evident that its greatest value is in stimulating the listener's interest in the subject presented and after this has been done the real educational work should be carried on through those agencies which have been and still are being developed by those engaged in educational work.

The educator should study the broadcaster's general problem and with this and the limitations of radio, for it has limitations, assist the broadcaster in developing and presenting programs of sound educational value to the child as well as the adult.

THE NEWSPAPER AND CHILDHOOD—ABRIDGED

JULIA TRAVER, SCHOOL EDITOR, ROCHESTER DEMOCRAT AND CHRONICLE
ROCHESTER, N. Y.

The newspaper reflects the life of its community. Its aim is to interpret that life as wholesomely as possible. More than any other agency, the newspaper shapes public opinion. Not even the church is as powerful in this direction. To form public opinion in the right direction, the newspaper must image personalities and events, movements and their objectives intelligently and accurately and as they are, and not as they ought to be or as one might wish them to be.

The newspaper always has recognized the importance of the church and the public school. In a way, it always has recognized the importance of education in its larger aspects, but only in the present time has it come to see the significance of the great educational movements. Heretofore it has been content to leave the discussion of the problems involved to the professional journals and to the educators themselves. Now it realizes that it has an important function to perform towards the community in an endeavor to interpret both the schools and the educational movements to the homes in particular.

In recent years the newspaper has sensed the value of the child as a news factor. Previously, the child had stood in the editorial mind only as a part of the family unit to be considered as a part of that unit merely and not as a human factor of sufficient importance to be viewed in relation to his own happiness or misery; not as an important element in a treatment of his surroundings or a consideration of the things that happened to him. Then something began to happen to the editorial mind. The newspaper began to be more circumspect in handling its news and questionable advertising began to be cast out.

The child had emerged as an individual.

There is a type of newspaper, however, that by exaggerating the importance of everything that the child does or that happens to him exploits him. Result—the part of the community that it serves has come to believe that a generation of heedless, sinful, and carousing young people has arrived. But those of us who really know young people either in our own homes or in school know that this indictment is not true.

The responsible newspaper is thoroughly conscious of its obligations to the community and to the community's children. The one significant figure in the editorial mind in this new attitude is the child. The eternal question in editorial rooms with regard to the schools is: "Is the money that is being spent in this community on schools giving the child the sort of education it needs for life; will this process through which he is being put from kindergarten days until the moment he is ready to enter college or go to work, make him the kind of citizen America needs? Will the child step into the commercial or industrial world fitted to meet the complexities of the life he must face?" We are not asking, "Will he be able to face his job better prepared than was his father?" The conditions of life his father faced as a youth just starting out and those he will face are so entirely dissimilar that such a question cannot be used as measure of the efficiency of the public schools.

Schools and education now have a particular value to newspapers and an importance that makes it possible for the closest kind of cooperation between schools and newspapers. The newspaper wants to advance the interests of the public schools and education generally, but it wants to do it intelligently and free from propaganda of every kind. The opportunity is offered in many communities for a splendid piece of cooperation in the interests of the children. Any school system can get it that goes after it, and thereby makes its community acquainted with methods and objectives.

Many persons who today criticise the public schools have not set foot in a school room for ten, twenty, thirty or even forty years. The type of school they are thinking about does not exist today in any progressive community. It would not be tolerated in any intelligent community of our time because it would be inadequate to the needs of our complex civilization.

There is no legitimate quarrel with the person who studies the schools conscientiously with the purpose of giving constructive criticism in an effort to clarify the situation. I am quite certain that the far-visioned and con-

scientious educator welcomes this sort of activity. After ten years of close association with a school system acknowledged to be among the best, I am conscious of things to be criticised. I am also conscious that educators know about these things and are using every effort to correct them, and that teachers are doing yeoman service in this direction.

In the editorial rooms of the country we see in the innumerable surveys and studies of curriculums, of administration and of costs a very deep-seated desire on your part to improve the service of the schools to the child and to the community. We are not unmindful of your problem in a country which in a generation, as it were, has passed out of the pioneer era of living, but still, in a very great degree, retains its pioneer thinking. That is, remains provincial on many subjects. We are not unmindful of the problem you face in a country which in a generation has developed from one of homogeneous population into one of great complexity that has thrown into the schools a great army of children from the four corners of the earth and from racial stocks of every degree of culture, or lack of it. With the child of cultural background you have to accept the child of generations of illiterate ancestry to do for it the very best you can. We know it is your task to take this raw material—plenty of it unpromising, but, oh, so much of it worthwhile, and make of it citizens that shall be worthy of the America we all love. We know that the American school teacher not only leads her children towards the light of knowledge and understanding, but that she mothers whole districts from which her children come.

What we, in the newspaper offices, want the teachers to do is to let us know more about the substantial and worthwhile things they are doing. We are interested in your surveys and your studies, and we should like to know the results. Elementary school principals, and other groups all over the country, are doing wonderful work in making special studies and attempting to simplify matters, and in those efforts giving the highest type of service to their superintendents and boards of education and to their communities. The world doesn't know about these things because those responsible modestly keep the facts hid in the archives of their organizations. Or, when they do tell about them, they tell it to professional magazines—teachers' journals, where the people who most need to know about it never see it.

The newspapers have discovered with what great care the public schools generally are being administered. There is a general recognition today that the average school board is made up of men and women who are devoting full time to the task often at considerable financial loss to themselves. They are recognizing that the superintendent of the modern school system is a business man of the highest type who would increase his yearly income many times by deserting to the ranks of industry or commerce. They are recognizing that the public school principal must be an administrator of unquestioned ability with a multiplicity of capacities. They are recognizing that the teacher is a person of infinite patience, much tact, and special apti-

tudes. They are discovering that teaching is a profession, demanding many sacrifices but making rich rewards in terms of lives influenced and careers assured.

The newspapers are conscious also that the people demand good schools and that each community wants the best. They know that from the first parents have said: "Here are our children; take them; teach them; train them in the way they should go," and having turned the job over to the schools, paid little attention to the matter until school costs began to express themselves emphatically in the tax-bill of the community. Then everybody began to talk at once, and many silly, unwise, and unintelligent things were said, as was very likely to be done from the very nature of the discussion. While many talked few offered any constructive criticism or advice.

We are beginning to realize that there are differences in children; that the same pattern and design of education will not fit all children; that educational programs must attempt to meet the needs of an almost endless variety of child mentalities; that what is good educational practice for one set of children is not fair to another; that if the schools are to fill their fundamental purpose of making good citizens, they must have varied and enriched curriculums open to all children according to their abilities and their special needs.

This new viewpoint has emphasized the importance of the schools and focused anew the interest in the child. One of the results is that in recent times very much more attention is given by the newspapers to the schools than before. Out of this interest has come the school page, now an important feature in a number of leading newspapers.

Our paper is just completing a series of articles which concretely describe the course of study in the public schools, giving the authority under which each subject has been introduced and the results obtained insofar as results can be measured. The series started with a statement of the objectives of the elementary school by Superintendent Herbert S. Weet, took up the kindergarten, the elementary school, the junior highs, and the senior highs, the special schools and departments, and will end in a few days with the city normal school. Altogether there are ninety-four of these articles, one of which has been published each day, except Sunday, since March 15th. They are to be printed in pamphlet form this summer. A copy will be given every person employed in the Rochester public school system, and copies will be supplied the Chamber of Commerce and similar organizations and to the public at cost. The effort has been to keep the entire series absolutely impartial and to have each one tell the story of the subject discussed as briefly and definitely as it possibly could be done. From all parts of the country and far away places like Hawaii have come requests for copies of the series.

The series was worked out through the cooperation of the superintendent of schools, many teachers and directors in the system and the managing editor and school editor of the *Democrat and Chronicle*. Not a person in the Rochester school system involved in getting out the material failed to

respond generously and promptly despite the fact that the series had to be worked out at a time when everybody was about as busy as he could be. That bit of cooperation is appreciated greatly.

In its service to the children, the modern newspaper does not stop with its school page and its special educational articles. It has a children's page, its scout page, and its youth's religious page, the latter a recent acquisition. All of them are bringing into newspaper offices persons with the new viewpoint of childhood and the opportunity to serve it. In addition, every year the newspapers of the United States give thousands of columns of space to stories dealing with the work, the aims, and the achievements of child-caring organizations and institutions.

Great care is used in the modern newspaper office to avoid the exploitation of children in the news and to prevent unnecessarily bringing them into the limelight even when they are delinquent. It has become a principle in many newspaper offices that no permanent record should be made of the delinquencies of youth which might in time to come darken years of effort to go straight.

Newspapers are stepping forward in many directions but in none so rapidly as in their work for children. Some of them are providing college scholarships for worthy boys and girls of the public schools who otherwise could not go on to the higher institutions of learning; thirty-eight of the leading newspapers, including the *Democrat and Chronicle*, cooperate each year in a national oratorical contest on the Constitution which has come to mean much to boys and girls of the junior and senior high schools. One Rochester newspaper last week sent a hundred and ten standardbearers and their escorts to Washington in special cars, all expenses paid for three days of sight-seeing.

The newspaper, like the school, is the creation of no one person, but that of many who have given freely of themselves to carry enlightenment and understanding into every corner of life. Our torch we soon pass on to others, but while we hold it we "try to see the other fellow's job, and interpret it sympathetically."

And finally, the press and the schools are interested in the creation of a loyal patriotic citizenship that shall cherish American traditions and protect American honor from assaults from within and from without.

THE CHILD AND THE MOVING PICTURE—ABRIDGED

WILLIAM DAVID UPSHAW, UNITED STATES REPRESENTATIVE FROM
GEORGIA, ATLANTA, GA.

While I have never been an actual teacher, with all the honors, emoluments, privileges, salary and perquisites that go with the position, I have felt for three strenuous, but glowing and happy decades, a peculiar comradeship for teachers. When I got off bed where I had stayed for about seven years, living amid the wreckage of my youthful hopes and plans, I made a straight line to the schoolhouse trying to help the boys and girls

who had no handicap to gain what I had missed in the schoolroom preparation for life. I have had about four million students to stand up and repeat the motto of my shut in life—and my motto since then, if you please, “Let nothing discourage you—never give up!” And during the latter years of this period I have been constantly meeting prominent grown-up men and women who tell me that they went through college on the practical inspiration that that motto gave to them. And since I have been a member of Congress these seven busy years, I steal away from the tedium of law-making to the schools around Washington and bathe my tired spirits in a refreshing sea of youth.

That is the way, my comrade teachers, I have been able to keep so young—you observe that I did not say young and “beautiful”—but young in spirit and purpose. Indeed the theme of these schoolroom messages has been “Pluck and Purpose”—putting into italics the pluck that falters at no obstacle and the purpose that is linked to God.

Do you wonder, then, that my theme today is a congenial one? My subject, “Motion Pictures and the Child” was assigned me, and I gladly accept the assignment, for on the one hand we have the Creator’s greatest unit of dynamics, and over against that winsome marvel of plastic potentialities, the child must consider the greatest human agency for blighting or blessing that child.

Needed—a new concept concerning the child—The most amazing, shocking and sorrowful thing I know is the average low, materialistic concept of the child and the utter abandon with which some teachers and more parents regard the child. If we wish to grow a better brand of colts or calves, or chickens or pigs, or puppies, we will see to it that nothing comes their way—certainly that nothing *stays* in their path that will poison their bodies and hurt their development.

But in countless thousands of cases the child is allowed to throng the unclean streets or sit for hours every week under pictures that “lead to bewilder and dazzle to blind.” Fascinated by this marvelous triumph of genius and art the child mind and the child nature respond to the screen scenes which grip and stir, utterly regardless of the insidious poison being deposited in mind and soul. “Let me go to the movies, mother,” is the plea in practically every home in towns and cities where pictures are shown; and partly out of the spirit of parental love and indulgence, and partly from a desire to be free from childish noise and pranks, consent is given and the child scampers away to join hundreds more of the “Tomorrow of the Republic,” who are entertained and enriched by much they see of educational value, and warped and weakened by much more they see that “jazzes” their tastes and lowers their ideas and ideals of living.

Strangling and blighting our children—During the recent hearings before the House Committee on Education concerning my bill, calling not for censorship in the usually accepted sense of that term, but for purification at the source, so as to make varying standards of bothersome censorship unnecessary in different states and cities, I was offered earnest evidence from friends of children all the way from the parent and teacher to the

observant judge on the bench, proving the sorrowful contention that the motion picture business, as now conducted, is blighting the mental, moral, and spiritual potentialities and possibilities of the American child.

And yet when such incontestable evidence is produced as a reason for governmental control of interstate commerce in the sensual and devilish influence against child development, the blind champions of the motion picture rush in and cry: "Stop, you Sabbatarian, puritanical reformers, you are trying to strangle this great and wonderful industry."

I deny the allegation—and I almost "defy the alligators."

We are not trying to strangle the motion picture business—we are simply trying to keep it from strangling itself, and we are trying yet more to keep it from strangling, body and soul, our children who are "dearer to us than the ruddy drops that gather in our hearts"—our children who are the seed corn of the nation itself.

I put into italics here what I said at the hearings of the House Committee on motion picture regulation and control, and that is the statement that I am a movie fan. I stand amazed and delighted at the mastery and wizardry of creative genius as portrayed in the motion pictures of today. Because education travels to every recess of mind and soul through the eye of the child as it does in no other way, I believe in capturing the motion picture influence for the cause of education and using it as the mightiest power, perhaps known today, for child development. But I remind you, my comrade teachers, you who are engaged in the basic, far-reaching work of citizen-building, that education without wholesome ideals of moral character is like a flower without fragrance—it is like a statue without a soul.

Two thousand men behind bars—I recently spoke to two thousand men, not one of whom got up and left before I finished. They were in the Federal Prison. There were bright men there, men with really handsome faces—men who had led their classes in high school, who had been champion debaters and victorious athletes in college, men who had university diplomas framed on the walls of their shadowed and sorrowing homes—they had been "educated," as the schools call it, but they were under the mandate of wrong ideals—they had forgotten God.

"Tread softly there," says some timorous soul, "it is not our province as teachers to teach religion—it is our duty to educate the mind and develop the body." I answered, tread more softly still—for we are entering now the courts of the "Holy of Holies," for, in your high and holy task in which you are permitted to enter into sacred partnership with the Creator of the Universe—not only of worlds and stars, of mountains and plains, of lands and seas, but as builders, with Him, of God's crowning handiwork, the human master of the earth—men, who came to subdue it and cultivate and develop it for the glory of its Creator—ah, my comrades, I remind you that you stand in constant fear lest that bright boy or girl whom you send out with blushing honors beyond the campus gate shall fall a prey to selfish, sinful indulgence and Godless, wordly ambition. A picture which fascinates "Young America" mentally and physically nine-tenths of the way, may suddenly throw on the screen one liquor-drinking scene which defies

the majesty of our constitutional law—one lecherous climax of sex appeal which tramples every sacred law of God and man—and alas! your treasure handiwork of many patient years is shattered in one fateful and fatal night.

I summon you, as your teacher-friend Woodrow Wilson used to say, “I summon you to comradeship” in helping to drive every unclean, destructive picture from the American screen!

Comradeship in ideals—I summon you again to the responsible task of catching a new vision of the regnant power of wholesome ideals and of basic concepts on the part of the child under your care.

Verily, the education you impart, according to that old-time aphorism, is “a sword in the hand of a madman” unless pure God-fearing, unselfish ideals of reverence and service, shall control every element of that education, every step of the way.

If you teach a boy that he came from an inert protoplasm (whatever that means) or a wallowing tadpole, a grinning ape or a jumping monkey, and that boy will naturally want to do groveling, muddy, monkey-like things; but if you teach that boy, that bundle of human and Divine dynamics, that he came from the creative hand of the Creator of the Universe, who “flung the stars from His fingers in creation’s morn,” and who upholds the worlds by the Word of His power, plant the miracle of regeneration in his bosom, place the Star of Bethlehem in the say of his life, feed his mind and soul on the pabulum of purity and truth, and that boy, with an appetite for the immortal, will never be content to stand any lower than upon the shining heights of a radiant, glorious, victorious manhood.

I summon you also, my teacher comrades, to the value of the chapel hour or half-hour (never less), as the case may be.

I speak to you now, not as an actual teacher myself, but from the standpoint of schoolroom fellowship; having spoken, I remind you to four million school boys and girls. What glorious times I have had for these thirty years with teachers and pupils—north, south, east and west.

How gratefully remembered those warm hand clasps of principals and teachers, and of students, saying, “You have made our tasks easier from now on!” How treasured that gracious work of President J. C. Woodward of the Georgia Military Academy, College Park, Atlanta, when, after I had spoken thirty minutes to his gallant boys on “The Power and Purpose,” he arose and said: “I was just thinking while Mr. Upshaw was speaking how I would that some great-hearted, far-visioned man or woman who believes in endowing institutions would catch the vision of endowing a man and make it possible for our friend and Congressman to go all over America and carry this message of inspiration to students everywhere!”

Frankly, my friends, I wish somebody would—for what would be a Congressional crown compared with such a boundless opportunity for touching humanity and building with you every day the pillars and guardians and defenders of our Republic!

Let no principal say, “We haven’t time for chapel” or “we can only find time once a week.” I remind you that you have all the time there is—you haven’t time not to have it! The school needs its unifying inspiration

power every day. The child needs its psychic, subtle, sweeping influence. Whether it be a song, a spoken message, or a message from the gripping magic and mastery of the screen, God help you to make that daily message as pure, as powerful as Eternal Truth, as refreshing as the dew of Hermon, and as fragrant as the breath of Sharon's Rose.

BRINGING BIG OUTLOOKS OF SCIENCE TO THE CHILDREN—ABSTRACT

DAVID DIETZ, SCIENCE EDITOR, THE CLEVELAND PRESS, CLEVELAND, OHIO

The schools of the nation must do more than teach children how to make a living. They must teach them how to live.

It is easy to make a living, as the prosperity of the nation shows. It is not easy to know how to live, as the endless discussions raging over ethics and morals and the sad records of the courts show.

I believe that we can best teach the child how to live by bringing the big outlooks of science into his life.

The facts of science will give the child a new universe in which to live. The spirit of science will give him a new outlook upon life.

The facts of science will fill the ordinary happenings of everyday life with new beauty and wonder. The wind and the rain, the sun and the stars become objects of intense interest and charm to the student who knows the facts of science.

The spirit of science is the spirit of tolerance, the spirit of open-mindedness. It is the desire to seek the truth and to accept the truth fearlessly when it is found.

I believe that we can begin to teach science in the elementary grades.

The six-year-old child asks: "Why does it rain?" "Why do the flowers grow?" "What is the moon?"

We can begin to teach science by answering those questions.

As the child reaches the age of hero-worship, let us give him scientists for heroes.

Let us tell him of the bacteriologists who risked their lives to conquer disease. Let us tell him of the research workers who consecrate their lives to the search for truth. As the child learns the facts of science, he will absorb the spirit of science.

He will see that the method of the scientist is to observe things as they happen, then try to formulate theories to explain these happenings. He will see that the scientist next goes into the laboratory and sets up experiments to test the validity of these theories. He will see that the scientist accepts the theory only if it fits the facts, and that as new facts are found he is ready to change his theory to meet the new facts.

If the child can be taught the beauty of this way of looking upon life and of doing things, it is safe to assume that he will carry it into whatever occupation or venture he may enter in later life.

And in this—the wide dissemination of the scientific spirit—lies the most powerful force for the improvement of civilization.

THE CHILD AND THE NEW SOUTH—ABRIDGED

KATE WOFFORD, SUPERINTENDENT OF LAURENS COUNTY SCHOOLS,
LAURENS, S. C.

Before we can think straight about the so-called new south we must acknowledge a few plain facts about the south from which this new and overwhelming growth has sprung. In the beginning I wish to say that the term, "new south," is misleading. The average person uses it loosely; it suggests a condition which has never existed and which does not at present exist. It indicates a decided break with the past in the forming of a new land and a new civilization. Neither condition has been brought about. There is a new south, but it is a readjustment of the old. This growth, however, has come from within; the south has never allowed its civilization to be imposed from without. The history of the south from its earliest beginnings will bear this statement out. Its history is a long and honored one. Many of the earliest settlements were made in her states. Five of the thirteen stars shone in the original flag for her colonies. Through all of the years of the nation's early development the south prospered industrially, agriculturally, and educationally. She compared favorably with any other section, any other state. In 1810 the south had more manufacturing plants than the six New England states combined; she had a system of schools—the apologists for the Reconstruction Period to the contrary—which was the pride of those early leaders who dared as early as 1840 to preach the educational doctrine of an equal opportunity for every child.

Slavery and its tragic progeny of war, reconstruction, and illiteracy followed hard on these prosperous times and not only retarded but checked our agricultural and industrial development and barred forever to the child of her darkest hours, his chance at the fulness of living. Sidney Lanier voiced the poignant despair of the youth of the south during this period as "most of living consisted in not dying."

Nor were these all the south's deflections from progress. During the fifteen years following the war the south lost 500,000 of her white population who moved into the west and Texas seeking wider opportunities. History does not record a greater drain on any country. In the words of Clarence Poe, one of the agricultural leaders of the new south: "We have come up through great tribulations, but we have come, having meanwhile achieved the great strength and serene confidence of one who having performed the tasks of Hercules, unafraid awaits other tasks." We have demonstrated the truth that "he who comes victorious from wrestlings long and laborious has power with gods and men." The new south is literally shining triumph of a defeated people over ignorance, prejudice, and a depleted and impoverished land.

Not only has the new south conquered ignorance and a depleted land but she is drawing back, multiplied, the great host who left her in the early eighties. The nation has discovered the south, but before this was possible the south first gloriously discovered herself. The mass movement of humanity upon the new south has been described by one writer as follows:

It is the setting in motion of a current which may result in a national shift of population scarcely less important in American history than the rush to California and the far west in the days of '49. Though unwarlike and less violent this movement may have its effects as far reaching as other celebrated hejiras; such for instance as the descent of the Goths on Rome; the Mongols on China, the Dutch on South Africa or the Mormon trek from Illinois to Utah.

In spite of the influx of this mass movement of peoples, however, the South has kept her own identity; the new south is her own peculiar and triumphant development.

Again, the apparently sudden prosperity of the new south is not sudden at all. It is a gradual development brought about by the faith and hard work of those who learned to "make bricks without straw." It is not my purpose to state how this happy condition has been brought about. I am only honestly trying to state conditions as they were and are. The end of the war not only found the south depleted in men, but the whole section in chaos, a chaos which took a half of a century to make straight again. Out of this chaotic condition, however, has come peace and order and prosperity. Over half of the country's cotton mills are in the south; the value of the cotton goods produced in the south is nearly three times the total value of the cotton manufacturers of the entire country in 1900; 84 percent of the nation's tobacco is produced below the old Mason and Dixon line; and the coal area of the south covers 100,000 square miles. Out of these great resources, dormant and idle for years, the south has come back with a vigor and confidence that has astonished and delighted the whole of the United States.

Thirdly, the old south is not narrowly sectional; she has never been. Too many people in the United States prefer to speak of the south as if it were a single and separate country inhabited by a peculiar people. Even historians are guilty of speaking of the "southern attitude," the "southern vote," the "southern opinion," as if these could be definitely measured and weighed. I have had friends from other sections, very gentle and very fine, who were honestly surprised to learn that southerners were like all other Americans with perhaps the exception of being more broadly national than any other section of America. I mean by this that whatever distrust and dislike that may have unfortunately arisen during the war between the states is being happily forgotten, and that the heroes of the blue as well as the gray are honored in a way in which many of the other sections of America have not yet thought proper. The children of our schools are taught to honor the memory of both Lincoln and Lee with a generosity of spirit that is both beautiful and inspiring. Whatever of bitterness may have resulted from the war and the Reconstruction Period there has come out of it for us all a common way of thinking and a common way of life. Particularly on questions involving the welfare of children have we agreed upon the same ideals, the same aims.

With this—I trust—slightly clarified idea of the new south, what of the child in her midst? The south is making an unprecedented growth in ma-

terial progress. Her thousands of new smoke stacks are eloquent witnesses to this fact. Her newly developed water power, more powerful than all of her slaves, thunder forth the prophesy of her future greatness. What of the child? Is the south making her greatest potential asset a real one? Is she sacrificing her future leaders to economic progress? What of her schools? Is she being "true to the Heavenly Vision"? What of the Child?

The south has definitely dedicated herself to the cause of public education. This has not been an easy task. The year of 1876, when the south returned to self-government, was an optimistic one for the schools. However, the optimism was short lived. Educational apathy and indifference on the part of the public deadened and finally killed the first outburst of educational enthusiasm. The public as a whole felt that a proper contempt for schools was another way of showing a proper contempt for the reconstructionists, and the discredit of schools was discredit for those responsible for the system. It took the south years to recover from the serious results of this unfortunate opinion of the public. The same indifference and neglect has held, in fact, until recent years when the schools were taken back into the public's confidence and given access to the public's pocket book. The thoughtful leaders of the south knew then, as they know now, that the development of the south along all lines rested upon an educated citizenship, and be it said to their everlasting credit they dared to make the beginning toward this shining goal in the midst of the most dire poverty and despair.

One of the many obstacles in the way of a growing system of schools in the south was the early lack of money. The principal of local and state taxation for school purposes was accepted slowly. Conservatism, a virtue of questionable values for the south, made men cautious in the appropriation of sufficient school funds. The new south gives promise of overcoming this obstacle. A few figures are necessary here. Twenty-five years ago the states of the south raised by taxation and paid for public schools \$27,-270,310. In the year 1925 there was raised and spent in the same section for public education \$273,036,452, an increase of over a thousand percent. School terms have been lengthened from four to eight and nine months, the salaries of teachers increased, and the qualifications for teachers steadily advanced. In her prosperity the south has given generously to public education. In fact, so free has she been in her expenditures for public education that we have faced and are facing a real danger. There is a tendency—deplored by our educational leaders—on the part of the lay public to spend more money than thought on education. It has been necessary to teach the public in certain sections of the south that a magnificent school building does not necessarily make a magnificent school.

The greatest progress, however, that has taken place in the education of the south has found its development in the high school. Twenty-five years ago there were only one hundred four-year high schools in the whole southern section; today there are over 2500 public high schools housed and equipped at an expenditure of over \$50,000,000. In 1913 the high school

enrolment was only 165,241, in 1922 it was increased to 357,100 and now the enrolment has reached the magnificent number of 500,000. For a quarter of a century educational leaders have preached the policy of finishing high school. Recently we have discovered the fact that everybody and his child has taken us at our word. As a result of the increased high school attendance colleges and universities are being overwhelmed with well trained boys and girls demanding entrance. The child in the south is beginning to receive the educational attention and assistance denied to the past generation.

Many other obstacles, however, are still blocking school progress in the south, and as a consequence are proving stumbling blocks to the south's children. Although the child is benefitting from increased school revenues he is still being taught in a school system largely controlled by an ugly practice of politics which is stifling school growth at its very beginning. So viciously has the system of politics worked among the schools that many policies of school administration, supervision, school control and even certification of teachers have felt its blighting influence. The child, in whose name the system does its vicious work, suffers most of all. The average court house and state house political ring is a factor to be reckoned with in southern education. Progress of schools is retarded, the rights of parents and of children are disregarded in order that unscrupulous politicians may further their own selfish aims. The schools of the south will continue to fail in their maximum of usefulness as long as politics dictate the policies of school systems.

In order for the child of the south to come into his own educational inheritance certain other fundamental changes must take place in the public schools particularly from the standpoint of a reorganization of the entire system. If the public schools are to make adequate returns upon the vast sums of money being spent for them we must bring about a new emphasis upon the right sort of educational leadership. In the word leadership I particularly wish to include the offices of state and county superintendents of education. These offices have long ago outgrown the duties of a clerk and now demand the highest type of technical skill. The office of state superintendent formerly, for instance, required the combination of a statistician and politician who could extract state aid from a reluctant legislature and in turn dispense it to the county superintendents. The needs of the office have enlarged with the new south's increasing responsibilities to its children. The importance of the office is now so great that it requires the best type of leadership and statesmanship. The south, if it is to meet the needs of its children, must take this high office out of politics and refuse to limit its choice of leaders to the individual states or as for that matter to the south.

Further, in order for education in the south to keep step with her progress along other lines it seems necessary for her to make radical changes in the unit of school administration. The whole south, with one or two outstanding exceptions, is hide bound with a district system both pernicious and

antiquated. In theory the county is the educational unit but in reality the small districts served by local boards of trustees, all loosely bound together form the unit of school administration. The local boards of trustees carry on the work of their particular school district with never a thought nor a care for the county system, as a whole. Consequently the most glaring educational inequalities exist. These inequalities fall unfairly hard upon the country child, who because of the small taxable area in which he lives has often for his lot inefficient teaching, poor equipment, and practically no supervision. With school control centered locally it is almost impossible to enforce compulsory attendance laws, and the rural child suffers accordingly. The child labor problem in the south is no longer a textile one, it has become most acute for the small producer on the farms. For this problem the district system of school administration is largely responsible. Until this local district system can be replaced with a combined community unit system for school administration and the financing of the system placed on a county basis the country child in the south can never catch nor keep step with the other lines of the state's progress which will sooner or later need his education and his leadership.

However, a brighter day is dawning. Already the children of the city and town schools of the south have the same educational advantages offered by other parts of the United States. A few of the states have led the way in giving every child the same opportunity. Already indications point to the greatest educational development which the south has yet experienced. Educational systems give promise of a complete reorganization, with the welfare of children as the chief concern, school politics are being gradually conquered by school policies and sound business principles are being employed to make the school efficient in its service. The new south will take care of its own. Against its background of pain and poverty the south faces the future, and thru the eyes of its children faces it serenely and with confidence.

NEW ROADS TO CHILDHOOD—ABRIDGED

ANNIE CARROLL MOORE, SUPERVISOR OF WORK WITH CHILDREN, PUBLIC
LIBRARY, NEW YORK CITY

Children's tastes in reading are better than their parents and teachers when given a natural exposure to books because children can be trusted to read books for reading's own sake.

What is natural exposure to books?

There is a power in books, persistence—fortitude—imagination.

Literature is something that is still going on—going on for children as well as for the rest of us. Writing for children is an art, not an exercise or a chore.

Children's books are changing as children change and in direct ratio to the divination of their needs and desires by writers and publishers who have

the imagination, the skill, and the courage to produce books which belong to childhood rather than to the names on title pages and in catalogues.

New books for children are worth reading. Who are the writers of them?

Striking changes have taken place in the publication of children's books during the past fifteen years!

Poetry is being widely read for pleasure since E. V. Lucas made the first of the modern anthologies. His *Book of Verses for Children* stood alone in the field and 1,000 copies a year supplied the demand of the time, while 10,000 copies of Louis Untermeyer's *This Singing World* have been sold in the period of two and a half years since publication and it is passing into a special edition for junior high schools.

Other delightful collections of poetry have appeared.

The question so often asked, Will children read poetry? is answered. Yes, if presented in attractive form, and without tiresome explanations or apology.

Let the poets who know how to make the anthologies make them.

Let every teacher go forth from her training with Walter de la Mare's "Come Hither" as companion and guide to the heart of English poetry.

Imaginative fiction has had notable original additions. *Doctor Dolittle* is here with assurance that human interest in animals has come to stay, for Hugh Lofting has created in him a genuine character of universal appeal.

Rootabaga Stories are here and here to stay for they have sprung out of our own western soil—the gift of a poet to the heart of a child—the forerunner of a great life story, Carl Sandburg's *Abraham Lincoln—The Prairie Years*.

Poor Cecco, the story of a wooden dog, owes a big debt to the Italian classic *Pinocchio* as well as to the magic of Hans Christian Andersen for blazing his trail. The resuscitation of the inanimate is an art of peculiar delicacy. Margery Williams Bianco possesses it. Her "Little Wooden Doll" and "The Velveteen Rabbit" give further proof of it.

Will children read modern fairy or fanciful tales? Yes, if they interpret truly and report clearly what a child sees, feels, and knows about life.

What about realism for children?

Realism is not photography. Has the writer the skill and the knowledge? Dorothy Canfield Fisher has.

"Give me a book to unhitch my boy's mind at night," implored the father of a ten year old boy who had a natural distaste for poetry and fairy tales.

Dorothy Canfield Fisher's *Made to Order Stories* filled the bill for it was writtin to satisfy the natural craving of her own little boy.

Children as well as the rest of the American people are reading more books and better books than they have ever read before.

Millions of statistics might be advanced to prove it, but all statistics of reading are both tyrannical and deceitful. The subject can neither be weighed nor measured in time or space.

I am here to tell you instead that children's reading is not a by-product of

an English course, an intelligence test, or of anything else. Children's reading is a subject of limitless possibilities and lifelong implications. Leave children as free to read the books of their choice as to breathe the air of mountains or sea shore. By the breath of life that is in it, and by that alone, does any book survive or the love of reading become established in the life of a nation.

Finally, I am here to remind you how brief is the generation of school age and that responsibility must ever rest upon the teacher to become a *continuous reader* herself if she would influence the reading of children who come and go each year, preparing them, not by graded list of syllabus, but by natural association with books, new and old, to discover in their own good time their own masters in literature and to take nothing about reading on hearsay.

Beware the uneasy ghost of Mr. Gradgrind, ever flitting across the field of education with his measuring rod.

Conquer these deadly enemies to the rapid advancement of fresh creative work and its ready assimilation by undernourished children:

The inertia of parents as individuals.

The persistence of routine habits in relation to matters which are not routine. The clatter of educational machinery.

Over-recommendation of books which rouses a strong determination not to read.

Over-condemnation of books with its opposite effect.

Reading for credit or reward, which I condemn without hesitation and without mercy as destructive to the love of reading.

The serious habit, acting as a narcotic on author, publisher, reviewer, and bookseller, as well as upon the child, by dulling the sensibilities to sensitive prose and verse and closing the mind to those fresh manifestations of literature which afford such keen pleasure to real judges of literature of any age.

"The publishing of children's books at the present time is worthy of the highest type of intelligence and skill that we can bring to it," says one of the foremost publishers of the day. "No longer is it a by-product of the publishing business but a distinct department with special problems of its own, for the solution of which we must turn with a new demand and with fresh confidence to the schools as well as to the libraries of the country."

"Yet, strangely enough at present," he observed, "the sloppiest manuscripts that come into this office are from teachers of English. They lack precision in quotation, proper respect for authoritative sources and show poor balance in the organization of their own subject-matter. How do you account for it? What's to be done about it?"

Doesn't it all go back to natural exposure to books in childhood and to proper feeding and assimilation?

Some children are born with the power to choose and to assimilate. In others it may be slowly developed. Many grown-ups die every year without ever having known that such power exists. They learned the mechanics of reading, they taught the mechanics of reading, but they never really entered into the joy of reading for reading's own sake. Their reading never soaked into them and became a vitalizing element in their existence.

The wisest teacher of teachers I know—Emma L. Johnston, principal of the Maxwell Training School in Brooklyn, New York—has always been a reader of books as well as of character. She is the author in association with the late William H. Maxwell of several textbooks in English; her name is upon the title page of an excellent book of plays for little children.

Miss Johnston has been my friend, as Kate Douglas Wiggin records in *The Garden of Memory* that she was hers—all the years of my professional life and when I asked her what I should say to you on this great occasion, these are some of the things she mentioned:

Don't try to entertain them.

Give them principles.

Tell them who are making books for children today and that schoolmasters should confine themselves to the habit-getting things.

Creative writing should not be in the style of a language book.

Tell them to make an event of the coming of the new book and children will never forget it.

And then she added, "I am not a real judge of literature—few of us are. Dr. Maxwell had that power. He felt it keenly and was alive to present as well as past manifestations.

"When the first number of *Trilby* appeared in Harper's Magazine he recognized it for what it was and told us right away. He waited for no one to tell him that a book was good."

In closing I would like to pay my own tribute to New York's great superintendent of schools, with whom I was told it was about as easy to gain an audience as with the President of the United States. But leaping the barriers I found him the gracious, genial lover of literature I believed him to be after listening to one of his eloquent addresses. I had something to tell him to which he listened attentively and it was simply this: Hundreds of little children just learning to read are standing in line every day in our branch libraries all over Manhattan, Staten Island and the Bronx, waiting for easy books to be brought back by other children. What shall we do about it? Shall we buy primers?

"I had thought the school supplied enough of them," was his reply, "but if they really come and stand like that," and his eyes grew very bright, "why that means language interest. They want to read of their own accord out of other books, out of school hours—the English language. They must have all the books they want. You have told me something that makes me very happy. I am coming to see them in the libraries."

More and more are the libraries of the country becoming spacious playgrounds for the mind as well as testing places for the reality of interests created in the schools. America has made this special gift of children's libraries to the world. Let us cherish its freedom of exercise rather than bind it by mechanical organization.

ADDRESS

JESSIE GRAY, TRAINING TEACHER, PHILADELPHIA NORMAL SCHOOL,
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Education is a national asset, and teachers are the artisans, the keen temper of whose idealism must develop that asset for the greatest gain to the nation. The determination to promote and increase education may be measured by strength of personality as well as by the scientific training of teachers.

Strength of personality, strength of determination, as of any other power, is measured by the distance it can be felt, as well as by its intensity. Life, as power, must be increased by the potentiality of every individual who may add to the sum total of the life stream of which he or she is a part. Whether the life stream in this nation is to be clear, deep, forceful, and guided is for us teachers to decide; and organization, not only of the individual life but of the aggregation of lives, is the keynote of its accomplishment. Organization primarily increases power and prevents waste; it accomplishes results impossible by isolated individuals. A life, weak in isolation, may be as strong as the group to which it allies itself. The slogan of the National Education Association "The profession at work on its problem," aims at this concrete result, power in the individual and increased power and influence in the group for and by the group.

The National Education Association by its departments, research bureau, discussions, and *Journal* seeks the elimination of wasted isolated effort and makes each member the recipient of all that has been accomplished by every other member. A book that I can heartily recommend has recently been edited by pooling all the wisdom of the state secretaries. It is called *State Organization* and is compiled by Hosman of Nebraska. As teachers we must produce better results; we must look more scientifically at the production process, and our research bulletins, our educational magazines, and the *Journal* hand to us power to produce more quickly, and more unerringly, the product we are after—deeper understanding and wider technic of education in individuals.

To make of living a fine art—a life that shall be purposeful, indefatigable, well disciplined, tempered to endure the utmost strain and stress of living, is an ideal worthy of any educator. To strive and hold cheap the strain, to dare nor grudge the throe, is worthy living! To do this we need common experiences in the laboratory of life. We may think of organization as this common experience that we all voluntarily seek to get a wider sphere of usefulness, to become more tolerant, sympathetic, unselfish—to achieve all those human reactions without which life together is a failure.

As a uniting force, the National Education Association serves this most useful purpose.

Ideals shared help to unite; but ideals accomplished by mutual aid form

an indissoluble bond. Organization means to me the sharing of common humanitarian ideals—and the sharing of strength to accomplish those ideals. Organization is the structure of our mutual endeavor through which we secure progress for ourselves, guidance for the group, and accomplishment for all. Loyalty, which is putting the hand to some bit of work till it is accomplished, is the by-product of organization. The concrete thing we accomplish is good, but the strengthening of the spirit of loyalty is the greater good, because it is an earnest expression of future skill and endeavor with greater results as a harvest. It is what we are loyal and purposeful enough to pass on to others that is the great test of an expression of living.

Organization, then, develops individuals, through the creation of a fine loyalty, a fine generous spirit of comradeship and sharing; and at the same time it combats and defeats selfishness.

Organization, I repeat, is a common experience we all pass through to develop greater constructive power in individual lives for the good of the group.

The National Education Association is the aggregate community interest that educators of the nation have created for a larger field of usefulness and influence. In loyalty to that organization, through service, we find our own development, we rid ourselves of peculiarities, we gain in the grace of living together.

The courtesy, the graciousness of life comes from an expression of appreciation for all that has been attempted and accomplished for us by others. It is so in the home, the community and the state. We find that opportunity to grow in gracious appreciation in our National Education Association because so much is done for us by others. Some one has said "Life is a cup, not to be drained, but a chalice to be filled." I might paraphrase "Organization, this National Education Association, is a cup, not to be drained, but a chalice to be filled with service, appreciation, forbearance, sympathy, generosity." The soldier who passes on the cup to slake another's thirst has all the finer well of water that springs up and gains by giving—*That* after all, is the great difference between a child and an adult—the attitude toward giving and getting. Our organization teaches us to put away childish things and to give and grow.

We learn forbearance when we hear teachers thoughtlessly say "The National Education Association has done nothing for me." We learn to wait for growth; for growth into service is an evolution; it takes time. The day is quickly coming when more and more teachers will see that the National Education Association is an opportunity individually and collectively to increase a powerful kind of influence that reckons on better lives and better living, together as an aim worthy of the best that our democracy demands.

I ask when you return home to your part of the nation, that you go, as a result of this splendid convention, with increased determination to preach

the potency of this National Education Association and increase its membership by the keenness and contagion of your own enthusiasm, to show others what they may do, to assign duties if possible, and above all to praise for work well done. To one clear note in divers tones each one of us thrills—In a few days, every nation of the globe will pledge the United States of America on the 150th anniversary of its birth in this city, a short distance from where we are gathered in convention.

Fellow teachers, I pledge to you of the United States of America one nation, indivisible, with liberty, justice, and opportunity for all. We are the educators of that nation; the keen edge of our enthusiasm is the tool that carves its destiny and chisels its ideals so that all who run may read. Let us look to our tools again, for faster and faster must we work; and more unerringly must we create the spirit, that is worthy of being the voice of the people, for the people, by the people. And I hear a prophetic voice saying "write" and I ask what shall I write and I hear again the answer "These are they that have come out and have prepared themselves in all conscience to help others lead more abundant lives in the place where youth and opportunity meet, and that is the public school."

TEACHING SERVICE THROUGH THE JUNIOR RED CROSS—ABRIDGED

ARTHUR W. DUNN, NATIONAL DIRECTOR, AMERICAN JUNIOR RED CROSS.
WASHINGTON, D. C.

In the fascinating story of his life, Michael Pupin describes the birth, in the Civil War, of the National Academy of Sciences, and in the World War, of the National Research Council. "Blessed be the country," he exclaims, "which even in time of war creates institutions the highest aim of which is to cultivate the arts of peace!"

The Junior Red Cross is one such institution. Born in war time to enable the children to share in the work of the Red Cross, its underlying purpose has always been to foster the spirit of service and good will. Conceived in the minds of educators, its educational values have always been uppermost in the thought of those who have directed the movement.

It is only one of many examples of the mobilization of children during the World War for participation with their elders in a great national enterprise. Among these examples it is unique in that it has not only continued to function since the war, but has spread by leaps and bounds, like a prairie fire, until today it is a world-wide movement, of and for children, unparalleled in history. More than forty countries, representing every continent and distant islands of the seas, now have their Junior Red Cross organizations, with an aggregate membership of nearly ten million children, under the direction of their teachers in their schools. Half of this membership is to be found in 150,000 schoolrooms in the United States and her territories.

The foreign program of the American Junior Red Cross first scattered the sparks that burst into flame here and there throughout Europe, and were later wafted to other parts of the world. It was more like the kindling of a multitude of friendly lights, from each of which, in turn, new lights were lighted, spreading illumination over ever-widening circles. This idea is symbolized in our American Junior Red Cross poster for the past year, "Lighting the World," which hangs before you.

The rapid spread of the Junior Red Cross has been due to the avidity with which children take to it. It appeals to them. They like activity. They are naturally friendly. They enjoy being of service. One of the most popular slogans of the Junior Red Cross has been "Happy Childhood the World Over." I often think that the significance of this slogan is not appreciated by many. It does not refer to the kind of happiness that results from mere relief from suffering. It does not mean merely well-fed, well-clothed, and well-housed children. It refers rather to the joy that comes to children through activity, and especially through activities that are of service to others. The service of the American Junior Red Cross to the children of Europe after the war, and at the present time, has been largely that of giving them *something to do*, rather than something to eat or to wear—playgrounds, workshops, gardens, and the like. This was true also in the striking work done by the American Junior Red Cross for the children in the tornado area of Illinois and Indiana last year. *Mental hygiene* plays an important part in the work of the Junior Red Cross.

At this point I think I should give you the definition of the Junior Red Cross which was formulated a year ago by an international group of leading educators who spent four days in Paris discussing the Junior Red Cross and its relations to education. It is the best characterization of the Junior Red Cross of which I know, and I shall refer to it from time to time in the course of my remarks.

The Junior Red Cross is a voluntary organization through which children and young people find opportunities for self expression; the motive which it brings into any classroom appeals to the imagination and the will of children in such a way as to transmute knowledge into action; this motive is being used, by those who are directing the movement, to promote health, to develop the altruistic tendencies in children, to give practice in good citizenship, and to promote international friendliness among the children of the world; it is not a method of education, but it is a free spirit which quickens the life of the whole school in which it is organized.

The Junior Red Cross was founded in America by educators, and everywhere throughout the world it works in the schools. In fact, it has, and can have, no successful existence independent of the schools. In its very essence it is a joint enterprise of the school and the Red Cross; an enterprise which the Red Cross could not carry on without the full cooperation of the schools. Nor could the schools carry it on without the Red Cross. Furthermore it is an enterprise in which the schools can not engage except on the supposition that, by doing so, they are furthering their own ends of education.

The best Junior Red Cross program is not one which adds many new

activities to the school life, but one which gives new educational and social values to activities which already form a part of the regular school work. "School work for service" has come to be a maxim in Junior Red Cross work. What the Junior Red Cross does is to add, not activities, but a real social motive.

When the uninitiated look at an exhibit of so-called Junior Red Cross work, they may very likely say, "But that is just an exhibit of the regular work of the school!" And that, for the most part, is probably just what it is. The significance of such an exhibit, from a Junior Red Cross point of view, is to be found, not in the articles themselves, but in the social uses to which they have been put, and in the motives which inspired the children when they produced them. The girls of a sewing class learn to sew by making garments; but they do so with the knowledge that the finished product will contribute to the necessities, the comfort, or the pleasure of some one needing it, and with the new social interest that this knowledge gives. The same is true of the manual training classes, the art classes, the domestic science classes. It is true of the geography class when its study of Albania, or Greece, or Guam, is spiritualized by the sending of simple Christian tokens made, perhaps, in the art class, or of messages written in the language class, to the children of these countries. It is true of the classes in language, or history, or civics, or art, when the motive of exchanging, through international school correspondence, ideas, and experiences and samples of school work, is present. In many a high school, existing musical or dramatic organizations derive new inspiration by arranging entertainments for children's or veterans' hospitals, or to raise money for their service fund.

This explanation should throw light on that part of the Paris definition of the Junior Red Cross which reads, "The motive which it brings into any classroom appeals to the imagination and will of children in such a way as to transmute knowledge into action."

"The motive which the Junior Red Cross brings into any school room," our definition further says, "is being used to promote health." On this point I shall only take time to say that the American Junior Red Cross has no particular scheme of health education. It does, however, by various means, seek to impress upon its membership the idea that "fitness for service" is a prerequisite to a life of service, and therefore to stimulate the formation of health habits. In doing this, it seeks to support and to supplement whatever health education work the school may be doing. Its main service in this field is to afford, or to strengthen, the social motive for health knowledge and health activities, and to provide a means by which to "transmute (health) knowledge into action."

The only other point which my time permits me to develop relates to what, in my mind, is the most important contribution which the Junior Red Cross has to make to the schools. Referring once more to the definition of the Paris conference, "The motive which the Junior Red Cross brings into any schoolroom is being used . . . to give practice in good

citizenship, and to promote international friendliness among the children of the world."

Let me remind you, first, that modern civics, or citizenship training, in our schools starts with the broad conception of the "good citizen" which Professor Dewey long ago declared for, namely a "thoroughly efficient and *serviceable member* of society." Second, that it recognizes the *present* citizenship of the child, and is therefore largely a training *in* citizenship and not merely a training for future citizenship. It seeks above all to develop in the child a sensitiveness to his membership in the community, and does this largely by fixing his attention upon his own actual community experiences, and by extending these experiences through participation in community activities.

This being so, it is not difficult to see how the Junior Red Cross fits into the scheme. Its essential purpose is to afford children opportunity *to be* "serviceable members of society" and to enrich their social experience through group action among themselves and with the adult membership of the community.

But even in this connection it is possible for some schools to say, as some have said, "But we do not need the Junior Red Cross. Our whole educational scheme is based on pupil activities. We teach community civics, and our pupils engage in a multitude of community activities." Our answer to this is, "Yes, but don't you think it is worth while for the pupils and teachers in your school to be linked up with the 5,000,000 other children and the 150,000 other teachers enrolled in the United States in a great national organization with a program of national significance?" I know from experience in organizing and teaching community civics the ease with which can be developed in boys and girls a consciousness of, and a sensitiveness to, their membership in the local community, and the difficulty with which a similar consciousness and sensitiveness are developed with reference to our national community. One can hardly overestimate the civic value of giving to the children of the nation the conscious experience in nation-wide cooperation that comes through active membership in a nation-wide organization with service as its keynote—a nation-wide organization not only of children, but representing also the organized voluntary cooperation of the adult citizenship of the country, with and through government, for disinterested service to humanity.

UTILIZING CHILDREN'S SPECIAL GIFTS—ABRIDGED

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Education is growth. No one questions the truth of this statement, but it will be difficult to find another statement made by three words which has a greater variety of interpretations. Teaching and educating, although not synonymous terms, are closely allied in meaning.

It has not been long since men called attention to the derivation of the

word from the Latin "educere," to lead out, in order to impress upon teachers that somehow children were to be led out of the darkness of ignorance into the light of knowledge. Teaching was thought of by such leaders as fact-giving. The business of the teacher was to lead the children intrusted to his care to fountains of knowledge—to Pierian springs and there, if necessary, compel them to drink. They were heard to murmur in self-defense and protest against such procedure when some errant boy or girl, with whom they had struggled, failed to pass the examinations, "You can lead a horse to water, but you can't make him drink."

Today, teachers and parents in all sections of our country are striving to *give* children an education. They think of the race achievements in knowledge and skills as desirable possessions to be acquired by children through study. Education is still interpreted in terms of subject-matter, if practice is the criterion. Theory says, "Education is growth." Growth is not something done to plants, animals and human beings; it is not something they acquire; it is something they do.

In this process of growth (education) the teacher is to the child what the gardener is to the plant. A school is a child garden, to translate a German term. Just as an expert gardener should know the peculiarities of each species of plant he tries to keep growing in his garden, so should the teacher recognize each child's special gifts.

Every child has individual tendencies, latent powers, potentialities, capacities, capabilities which appear and grow in a favorable environment or what an Indiana professor calls developability. Heredity acted upon by environment produces the individual. The teacher's work along with that of administrators and supervisors is to supply the proper conditions to insure growth.

Our law of growth is that of exercise. If children's special gifts grow, they must be used. In far too many places, these natural instincts of growth stirring within are wholly disregarded or treated as obnoxious traits not in conformity with certain external standards of the school.

Children possess initiative—a quality often missing in adults. They do not wait to be told to act, but begin at birth to experiment with certain bodily movements. The trial and error method is too expensive for all learning to take place in that way, but the teaching, the giving of aid must be done in such a way that the child is encouraged to make further efforts and continue until he feels that he has succeeded in the thing he started out to do.

If the child's initiative is directed toward unsocial or anti-social ends, then the teacher must put up the detour sign and reroute the misdirected energy. By the time children enter the public schools a few have already lost much of this power of initiative because in the home they have been hedged in by a wall of "don'ts" and "you can'ts"; however, most of them are eager for every opportunity to use this power. In the schools a decade ago, when the thought of the teacher was centered on teaching children to read, to write, to calculate, to sing, to draw, to obey commands in calis-

thenics, there was no place for the child's initiative. The boy who exercised this natural gift was labelled bad, troublesome, marked low in deportment, or otherwise punished until he found life tolerable only when he conformed to school rules and school discipline. Talking by children to each other during school hours was strictly forbidden and no movement of children about the room or building was permitted except when they were told expressly how, when, and where to go.

Contrast this with the modern classroom where the teacher recognizes thirty, forty, yes even forty-five individuals each with a divine right to grow at his own rate while he lives naturally as a social being serving his group, each according to his ability. The teacher is no longer a dictator, an autocrat, but just as was the greatest of all teachers—a servant, placing himself so that he will be of the most possible service and inspiration to the group as a whole and to each child individually. There is a time for work, a time for play, a time for silence, and a time for the noise of industry.

Children possess the natural gift of curiosity—a gift if directed that develops the scientific attitude, but undirected develops busy-bodies. In the modern classroom just described the curiosity of some of the pupils would be so stimulated that they would go at once, if left free, to books and encyclopedias for further information.

Strong, healthy children are naturally active. They demand action. The wise teacher does not attempt to repress this spirit of activity, but utilizes it in carrying on community projects. What an opportunity for him through this gift to help children to recognize the abilities of others; now to step aside to become a follower and at another time to assume leadership. Jealousy, one of the greatest enemies to human happiness, has no place to thrive in such a school. Some child suggests that the story just read be dramatized. The class eagerly gets to work. Those who can draw best make the scenery, those who can write best transpose some of the indirect discourse into direct, those who can manage properties prepare the stage, and those who are the best penmen write the invitations. The class leaders and the wise teacher finds something for each child, if it is nothing but to be a swaying tree or to imitate the sound of the wind which sways the trees, or to be critics and newspaper reporters who view the performance and report it for the school paper.

The discipline here is of the highest type—self-discipline.

Children move freely about to get needed materials, sit now in their seats, now at the library table or in a low chair in some nook in the room; talk with a neighbor about an arithmetic problem, ask a neighbor to dictate some number combinations or spelling words in order to know just what ones need attention—all of course so quietly that others are not disturbed. The bell rings all too soon for noon dismissal. Children return eager to begin where they left off. Whispering is not a crime, the clock ticks because it must to keep time, but not for children and teachers to hear. Idleness is not punished by the teacher, but made taboo by the society living within the room. Public opinion governs, not the teacher's commandments.

Children possess great creative power. The imagination is most active in early life.

Children possess great faith in their own ability as well as in the abilities of others. Long ago Emerson said,

So nigh is grandeur to our dust
So near is God to man
When Duty whispers low, "Thou must,"
The youth replies, "I can."

In most grown-up folks this faith has been dwarfed by failures in enterprises undertaken on one hand and fear of ridicule on the other. Philosophers tell us that man only uses a small part of his strength. By utilizing the innate powers in children in carrying on classroom enterprises which succeed to a large degree, this creative power will grow, the imagination will be directed along profitable lines, and a justifiable faith in one's own ability will continue throughout life.

Children live in the present; they are not interested in the future except that close at hand—"tomorrow," "next week." To them the future has no stimulating or directing power except as present activities tend to extend into the immediate future. The stimulus to healthy work resides in the situation with which they are actually confronted. The teacher who has sufficiently keen insight into the nature of each child so that he can bring about naturally problems that children enjoy solving because they call forth latent powers and allow the creative spirit within to operate, is the teacher who finds continuous joy in service in working with the current of happy, spontaneous activity of child life.

This creative power, accompanied by the fearlessness of little children, is the foundation of progress. When it is at work the child forgets completely self; the inner urge to carry to completion the project he has in mind brings about self-direction and self-control, two points added within recent years to report cards which children carry into the homes. Creative power at work unlocks the tongue, motivates language, soon brings about a need for reading to see what others have to say about the subject in hand, demands the assistance of others and thus breaks down any tendency toward egotism or a feeling of self-sufficiency which proud parents and admiring teachers are apt to bring about unconsciously by praising the precocious child. In schools where work is motivated by appeals to the creative powers, idle and indolent children are not found. Pupils work with a will and a purpose in order to produce results as soon as possible. The progress made today spurs them on to greater effort tomorrow. Persistence, perseverance, concentration, become a part of the fiber, backbone and very soul of the child who is trying to express in a material way that which surges within.

Dependence which characterizes the long period of infancy, one of children's special gifts, is a very important factor in education. Native curiosity must be satisfied and together with initiative must be directed toward

desirable ends. Because of this dependence this direction is managed so ingeniously by the teacher that development is not impeded.

Dependence involves interdependence. There is always danger that increased personal independence, for which modern education strives, will decrease the social capacity of the individual. This gift dependence makes it possible for the teacher to suggest to the individual who is inclined to believe he can live and act alone that he can assist or be assisted by his classmates. Dependence developed into interdependence makes children willing to accept criticism and keeps them from the dangerous state of complete self-satisfaction.

How to utilize children's gifts must be a part of teacher-training. Unfortunately, most of our demonstration schools have twenty or less pupils per teacher. The load of the teacher varies from 30 to 45 pupils and money is not available for supplies of paper, paints, clays, wood, tools, tables, benches, etc.

The teachers in Indianapolis faced just such a situation. The progressive spirits among them felt the need of materials that would stimulate curiosity, promote purposeful activity, evoke creative power, and elicit growth in industry and cooperation among their pupils. Beginning with a few suggestions from the central office, they began to think, to search, to organize existing materials and invented some excellent devices both for use in the recitation and for motivation of work done outside of the recitation. In the spring, two years ago, those who had found interesting materials, devices, projects were asked to bring a sample to a primary grade meeting, that an exchange of ideas might take place. So numerous and so valuable were the specimens, that the teachers suggested that they be placed as an exhibit at the meeting in September when they would have time to study and take notes. A committee volunteered to organize the exhibit. By request the work was left up for several weeks so that teachers might study it with notebooks in hand. Other cities in the state asked to borrow this exhibit and today it is still regarded as a source of inspiration. Coordinate with this development of teacher initiative and creative power, came a renewed interest among children. On every hand new projects came into existence, booklets of every kind, geography, nature study, travel, birds; sand tables found new uses, now a farmhouse and the buildings surrounding it; then a Japanese sunken garden. Corn and beans grew in cups on every desk in some rooms; the visitor was invited to the vivarium to inspect grasshoppers and other insects or to be present at the feeding of the household pets, turtles and fish in the aquarium. Poems and stories and drawings found places in the school publications—for most buildings developed newspapers, printed monthly on the school presses for upper grades and news sheets printed in large type for the primary folks. The visitor to a building was very certain to receive an invitation to visit a club at the time of its meeting or to witness a dramatization.

Teachers have not exercised their own initiative nor encouraged pupil initiative because too great an emphasis has been placed upon uniformity

throughout a school system, by those in executive positions. In this modern age much is said about cooperation—a process according to a writer in Harper's Magazine, some two or three years ago, in which one "coos" and the other operates.

Utilization of children's special gifts means a real cooperation in which pupils, parents, teachers, executives engage to produce the maximum amount of growth in the constructive powers with which individuals are endowed.

Children bring to the school their offerings. They lay upon the class-room altar special gifts: immaturity, or the power to grow; initiative; a creative spirit; curiosity; activity; joyousness; and a dependence, involving unlimited faith in man and God; saying "Take these, teacher, use them in helping us to grow strong, increasing in wisdom and stature and in favor with God and man."

LEGISLATION IN THE INTERESTS OF CHILDHOOD

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About forty years ago there came to southern Illinois a gentleman born and reared on the rolling prairies of Iowa. Up to the time of his coming, as I have heard the story, he had never seen a natural forest. He had seen only those trees which were set out and grew up together. When he heard of a strip of virgin timber in the creek bottom where there were growing trees two or three hundred years old, he asked to be taken out to this forest. When one of the farm neighbors had driven him to a point from which he could see the great sycamores and elms and oaks and hickories reaching toward the sky, he asked the driver to stop. For a moment he looked as if he were in prayerful adoration. Then he made a remark which showed clearly that he was ignorant of the composition of a naturally grown and growing forest. He seemed to think that all there was to this forest were the great upstanding trees which he beheld in the distance. He seemed unconscious that down under those towering sycamores and elms and oaks was an under-forest of young sycamores, young elms, young oaks, ever reaching their branches upward to the sunlight and the air. And he seemed wholly unconscious that down under the leaves, in the warm fructifying mold, there were hundreds of thousands and perhaps millions of acorns and nuts and seeds swelling big with the promise of a future harvest.

But if this same gentleman could have come back to that region three years thereafter, when what we commonly call in southern Illinois a cyclone swept over this region, flattening to the earth and wrecking this bit of primeval forest beyond recognition—and if he could have gone with some of the younger folk who, having been away at school in February when the storm came, went one bright May afternoon to visit the wreck of this forest where they had celebrated their Fourth of July occasions and held so many picnics, and if he could have seen what they saw with their eyes, he

would have known that down under the great trees which he looked upon three years before there was an oncoming forest of young trees. For on that bright afternoon these young sycamores and elms and oaks and hickories, least hurt by the wrath of the storm were lifting their branches and leaves as if to say, "Wait ten years, children; wait twenty or fifty or a hundred years and we will come up to take the places of the trees that have been broken by the storm."

I know the figure is an extreme one, but I am convinced that in the hurry and strife of our modern economic and social order there are lawmakers, business men, and ordinary citizens who are so engrossed in certain particular lines of endeavor that they are making the same mistake when they look at the human forest. They seem to think and act and legislate as if they thought all there were to the human forest are the grown up men and women, forgetting the great under-human forest of boys and girls, coming up from the cradle to graduation from the high school so imperceptible as to escape their notice.

Let me cite one case. A young man had sold out his farm possessions and gone into Chicago to engage in business. For twenty years I lost track of him. One day by mere accident I discovered his name in the directory of a large building in the loop in Chicago. His offices were on the twelfth floor. Thinking to surprise him I went to his door, opened it and went in. I found him in conversation with two men, a heated, bitter conversation. Thinking that I had come at an inopportune time, I started to retreat. Recognizing me, however, he caught me by the hand and ushered me to a chair by the window. After his conversation with the two gentlemen was ended, I stood and started the re-approachment by saying that the twenty years which had flown over our heads since we had last met had left somewhat the same marks upon us, but that he would pardon me for saying that I saw certain lines on his face which indicated to me that he was spending his life too freely in the fierce business conflicts. He turned upon me in some warmth with the statement that he would not listen to a lecture by a schoolmaster who was cloistered, who did not have to go out every morning to fight in order to earn a dollar and then fight harder in order to keep it. Thinking to change the conversation, I said that during the ten minutes I had been sitting at the window looking down twelve floors into the artificial valley which they had built up, I had seen literally thousands of men and women going by on foot or in various conveyances, but during that time I had not seen a single child on the sidewalk, on the street cars or in any kind of a carriage or car. With a somewhat startled look on his face he said, "A child, a child, I have never thought to look for one. In fact I have almost forgotten that there are children in the world. I fight only with men, and it is with men that I work and about men that I think. In fact it has been fifteen years since a child climbed upon my knee and put its little hand on my cheek. I have almost forgotten that they were in existence." This I admit is somewhat unusual, but we will find in every state and county and community and our legislation halls certain men and women who are in somewhat the same state of mind.

But I care not how unthinking a man or woman may be, and how seemingly little concerned they may be about the presence of this great under-human forest of boys and girls, let such a human cyclone as the recent World War sweep the earth, hurling to destruction millions and millions of the most upstanding human trees that the world has ever produced—let such a human cyclone as this come and their minds must be instantly turned to the great under-human forest of boys and girls around the earth that must grow up and take the places of those destroyed by the storm. I do not know exactly how many men were killed in the World War, but it is estimated that at least ten million of men who but yesterday stood tall and courageous, seeking to achieve for themselves a modest fortune, to build themselves a home, to rear their children, to feed and clothe them—that ten million of such men today have their bodies rotting at the bottom of the sea or on the soils of various nations of Europe, Asia, and Africa. And, ladies and gentlemen, the only rainbow of hope which I can now see spanning these mighty continental fields of the dead—with all due respect to leagues of nations and world courts—the only rainbow of hope that now spans the sky of humanity's future is the radiant bow of the world's childhood. Out of the hearts and minds of the oncoming generations of the earth must break the dawn of that new day which we fondly hope will succeed this terrible nightmare of war. Out of the hearts and minds of these unnumbered millions of children must be created the new heaven and the new earth, of brotherly love and brotherly kindness which shall succeed this terrible ordeal, where men, Christian men, go out upon the battlefield to kill and destroy each other. And when we think of these human trees, not destroyed outright, but mutilated, wrecked beyond all repair, arms shot away, legs gone, eyes blinded, lungs burned out, the wreckage of this terrible war passes our comprehension. I have come to believe that one of the worst outcomes of any great conflict of arms is this broken scrap heap of men that come wriggling, crawling, limping back from every firing line. My blessing upon the nation that extends its generous hand to bind up the wounds of these broken ones, to give arms to the armless, legs to the legless, eyes to the blind, and care to the deaf—to do everything it can to make the remainder of the life of these broken men as economically independent and happy as possible. But if you inquire into how much it costs our nation to put on a single artificial arm, a single artificial leg, the cost is startling. Not one dollar wasted, I am sure we will all agree, if it aids in any way in making life happier for these crippled men. But when we think of how the nation is willing to pour out its wealth to build up these broken human trees, how during the war Congress and the state legislatures laid aside party politics and voted all needed laws, and how individuals and groups and states poured forth their wealth like rivers to purchase bonds, to build battleships, to organize and transport armies—when we think of all this very proper outpouring of zeal and energy and wealth, we can not fail to turn our minds to the twenty-five million of boys and girls enrolled in the common schools of this nation which we are trying to build up into right men and right women through a process of twelve years of common school

education at an annual per capita cost that would not keep an army mule through one winter's campaign; and when in our effort to secure legislation and money to purchase school grounds, to build school buildings, to project courses of study, to employ teachers, we meet with some of these individuals and corporations who were so generously patriotic during the war, we can not fail to take note of the fact that some of the hands that were so magnanimously open then are now closed tight, and that instead of that wartime, radiant, patriotic generosity, we often meet with indifference and sometimes hostility.

I do not count myself competent to say who is loyal to America, but if I ever should undertake to fashion a definition, it would be something like this: I shall count that man a good patriotic American regardless of where his ancestors were born, regardless of what language they spoke, regardless of what church altar he bows his knees upon—I shall count him a true American citizen if in word and in deed he seeks, through the enactment of laws and through his own cooperation to give this under-human forest, these boys and girls, a fair chance and a square deal. And I shall count that man disloyal to the America that I know and I love—I do not care how many times a day he stands and sings *The Star Spangled Banner*, I do not care how many times he stands and reads the Preamble to the Declaration of Independence or to the Constitution of the United States—I shall count him disloyal if in word and in act he is disloyal to the interests of the childhood of this republic and is unwilling to pay his part and play his part like a good citizen, like a good sportsman, in seeing to it that they are safeguarded and protected through constitutions and laws from exploitation by individual and corporate greed and surrounded with such social, economic, and educational conditions as will tend to develop them into true men and women.

In federal and state legislature we are constantly enacting laws for the conservation of our disappearing natural forests and the reforestation of devastated area. All this we believe is worthwhile and should be extended and strengthened. But we look with considerable concern now and then to see what our federal and state legislatures are willing to do for the conservation of this under-human forest and to prevent its devastation in the laws they enact in the interests of the childhood of the nation.

It is now my purpose to name some of the beneficial laws. I believe that the one first great law which was passed in behalf of childhood was that law that established the right of the nation, the state, the community, to tax individual and corporate wealth for the benefit of all. I have not a drop of communistic blood in my veins. I believe that individual or corporate endeavor to secure wealth is essential to the development of right character and sound government. But character strength comes mainly in the honest endeavor to secure wealth. Often when it is accumulated it becomes a destroyer of character. So long as individuals and groups of individuals could amass large individual and corporate fortunes without any acknowledgment of this obligation of indebtedness to the entire community, the children of the toiling masses had little or no hope for educational or

social opportunities. When, however, some one conceived the idea of a tax through which the wealth of every individual, of every corporation, could be made to behave as if it belonged to every man, woman, and child in the community—when that first drastic, far reaching law was enacted, one of the greatest possible benefits to universal childhood had come. I pay my tax and lights swing along the street and darkness and danger disappear. I pay my tax and good roads are laid down over which I go to visit my neighbors or transact my business. I pay my tax and parks and playgrounds are opened up, down to which come the children to play themselves into strong manhood and womanhood. I pay my tax and libraries are opened up wherein children may meet the great and greatness of the past on easy, accessible terms. I pay my tax and school grounds and playgrounds are purchased, school buildings and gymnasiums are built, courses of study projected, teachers employed, up to which come the millions of children to have their hearts and minds touched into greater light and greater power. I believe that the tax is the most practical application of the Bible doctrine “I am my brother’s keeper” that was ever written into constitutions and laws.

I am convinced that the quality of civilization of every nation can be measured by its interests in its children as expressed in its constitutions and laws. All modern human progress has been made along the line of the enactment of legislation promoting and safeguarding the interest of childhood.

Here in Philadelphia we are making the Declaration of Independence the basic text for much of our discussion. In the years succeeding its adoption there has been much questioning as to the inclusiveness of the phrase “all men” in the statement “all men are created equal and are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights among which are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.” Did this glowing statement include black men as well as white men? Did it include women as well as men? These two large questions have been answered in the affirmative. Within the last twenty-five years we have begun to ask, does it include children? If children have these inalienable rights, should not our government, instituted by the fathers, deriving its just powers from the consent of the governed, make its constitution and laws secure to the childhood of the nation these inalienable rights of life, liberty, and pursuit of happiness?

Even a hasty survey will show that many such laws have already been enacted within the state and the nation. In guaranteeing life to its childhood a state or a nation must consider the biologic, the physical side of children. Laws establishing state, county, city, and community boards of health are doing noble and effective work to this end. Public clinics and hospitals, county and community nurses, official studies and surveys into the physical needs of childhood; all of these are helping to secure physical life to the childhood of the nation. Better city and home sanitation, more playgrounds and open spaces, better and more nourishing food; all these conserve and promote the growth of our human under-forest.

Some years ago, Michigan authorities discovered that white fish which grew and thrived in certain lakes could not be made to grow in other nearby lakes. An investigation showed that in the lakes where the white fish persist and increase in numbers there was a small bit of vegetable growth floating in the water upon which the little white fishes fed after being hatched out. In those lakes which had been repeatedly stocked without success, this vegetation was wanting. It was an easy matter to "transplant" this vegetation into these barren lakes and establish a continuing stock of white fish. That state or nation which does not, through its laws and regulations, seek to discover and provide its children with proper food, is not securing for them the essential condition of physical life.

But, perhaps the most important, far-reaching law passed by state or nation to secure the right of life, liberty, and pursuit of happiness is the law curbing the greed of parents and corporations from employing their children in dangerous, exhausting labor during their formative, educative years. Child labor laws are a manifestation of the highest type of civilization, and it is nothing short of disgrace to any community, to any state, to any nation, to allow individual or corporate greed to sap the energies and waste the birthright of the children during these years when they should be at play or employed in those educative and social activities which tend only to larger and more complete development of their latent powers and abilities. As a boy on a farm one of my delightful occupations was in helping to gather the sap from the sugar maple trees. It was a matter of common knowledge that a mature tree could be tapped extensively without any apparent injury to the tree, but any attempt to tap the young, tender trees arrested and stunted their growth. No state or nation is conserving its young human trees that allows them to be exploited in the interests of any real or fancied need of parent or corporation.

No doubt, the largest and most beneficial body of legislation which has been enacted by the states and nation in the interest of our childhood relates to the founding and developing of our great school system. In no other way has the guarantee of life, liberty, and pursuit of happiness to our growing youth been more fully realized. More and better playgrounds, athletic fields, gymnasiums, and swimming pools, better seating, better heating, and better ventilation, better lighting, better living and working conditions; all these have tended to conserve the physical life and increase the liberty and happiness of the children.

Most of this liberty and happiness comes through the facilities furnished in rich programs of study and trained instruction for the development of their intellectual and emotional powers. What noble efforts have been made within the last decade to secure for exceptional children, the crippled, the blind, the deaf, these rights of life, liberty, and pursuit of happiness! It is difficult to imagine a more touching appeal than is made by this potential human scrap heap in their demand that we provide them with such conditions as will enlarge their lives, increase their liberty, and

promote their happiness. Our school laws relating to vocational education brought with them a hope and a danger to American childhood. No human being will live fully nor enjoy the largest kind of liberty until he has found some work which suits him and which he suits. Therefore, the introduction of courses of study, laboratories, and workshops, to arouse and direct the vocational instincts and aptitudes of public school pupils was a beneficent movement. But the danger lies in the cock-sureness of the infallibility of certain forms of subject-matter, certain methods of instruction, and certain mental tests, to determine the exact vocational niche in which each child may be made to fit. Let us expose our children to the incitements and allurements of a rich, lifelike program, and vocational selection will largely take care of itself.

Perhaps the largest and most drastic school law affecting the interests of childhood is the compulsory attendance law. It invades the privacy of the home. It is justified on the grounds that ignorance is a liability, that no state or nation can endure permanently if its foundation rests upon the sands of an ignorant people. The only way to build a great commonwealth is to build it in the hearts and minds of its children through the process of universal education.

By all odds, the most beneficent of all this group of laws have been those which have sought to secure for every child in these schools a good teacher—a man or woman fitted by nature, by education and training, to develop in these children a more complete life, a more rational sense of liberty, and a more intelligent pursuit of happiness. The highest crime of the pedagogic seas, is to compel a child to sit for nine months at the feet of a mediocre, incompetent teacher. Let us hope that the day is not far distant when every state in the union will guarantee to all of its public school children real teachers.

This great National Education Association has been one of the most potent and effective forces in America in formulating, in promoting, in insisting upon the enactment of such legislation at Washington and in the capitals of the several states which shall conserve the interests and secure rights of life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness to all the children throughout the nation.

Let us here and now rededicate ourselves to the great unfinished task which lies before us. Let us here and now highly resolve that the work so nobly begun shall be carried forward. Let us, from the activities and devotions of our noble leaders in this Association and in legislative halls, take increased devotion. Let us here and now rededicate ourselves to the great task of securing more and better legislation for the safeguarding, protecting, and developing of the childhood of our republic, for securing to every child in America the right to "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness."

INDUSTRY'S INTEREST IN THE EDUCATION OF THE CHILD—ABRIDGED

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Following the passage of the Smith-Hughes Act by Congress in 1917, there has been a widespread interest in the subject of Vocational Education. One of the results of this interest has been the enactment by some twenty states of continuation school laws. These laws all require attendance at part-time schools on the part of young people employed in gainful occupations who are under sixteen, or seventeen, or eighteen years of age—as the law of each particular state may provide. The required period each week varies, in the different states, from one half to one full day. I shall not discuss these laws. They are identical in principle. All are part-time schools, which mean short time contact extended through the early years of initial employment in trade, commerce, and industry.

Wisconsin passed its continuation school law in 1911, thus antedating the Smith-Hughes Act by six years. Milwaukee got under way in November, 1912. We may therefore speak upon the subject from an experience of fourteen years.

In establishing a system of continuation schools, nothing is of greater importance than that they shall not be set up as elementary schools, differing only in that they offer an attenuated program, a sort of "stint" to be worked off before complete freedom is attained. So long as the young people are made or permitted to feel that they are being snatched back from their new-found freedom, and put into short pants for a day each week, there will be trouble. The continuation school must be regarded, by those projecting it, as the last rung in the ladder of elementary education. It must be provided, equipped, and presented as the first rung on the ladder of adult education.

The great mass of those who will be required to attend are employed. They are working eight hours a day, five days a week, and draw their paycheck. They must work from now on—and that is a long time. They may be young but they are through with all school except the part-time school. So far as the great majority of adults are concerned, all adult school attendance must be in part-time schools. The part-time feature characterizes adult education. This grows out of the fact that adults must support themselves and this activity takes most of the time of most of them.

That the part-time continuation school should be an adult school is then my first point. Secondly, it should not be assumed that these young adults are to cease attendance at the part-time continuation school at the end of the compulsory attendance period. Opportunities for voluntary attendance, either day or evening, should be provided, both in excess of the required period each week and beyond the compulsory age limit of the particular state. The night school, which is a part-time school, and the

part-time day continuation school, present the same problems in the main, and should be organized into an adult education program.

Adult education again, for most people, necessarily means part-time schools, and a demand for work largely calculated to serve some vocational end. The work offered need not be "manual" to be vocational. The part-time or day continuation schools, because of the adult attitude, situation, and needs of those who are required to attend, or may attend voluntarily, must respond to the vocational education needs, and hence are frequently spoken of as vocational schools. The attitude expressed ought not to grow out of a contempt for the elementary or other full-time school. Their work is fundamentally important and on the whole well done. There is an invaluable work to be done by the continuation school in bringing about the intelligent return of some of the young people to the full-time school. This should be regarded as one of the great privileges and opportunities of the day continuation school teacher.

How can we bring our public along? What justification, economic and social, may we present for the intrusion of another tax-supported educational institution into the very age field heretofore thought to have been adequately cared for, and upon a local community already groaning under the expense of our present school establishments? How can we move our "status quo" school authorities, who render their best service by making the proponents of a new movement put up a vigorous fight to get recognition for their proposals? What may we say to the employers with whose employment situation we are interfering, or to the parent who too often is the great (oftentimes unconscious) exploiter of child labor? What can we say to the teacher—frequently firm in the conviction that a one-half day or even a day period each week is a piffling thing, big enough to be a costly nuisance but too small to be of any educational use?

The day continuation school, as I conceive it, is calculated to meet the educational needs of, first, that group of young people who are through with the elementary school but have not yet finished high school. Roughly, that includes all young people who come under the compulsory attendance feature of any of our state laws.

Second, all others who would voluntarily attend a part-time school designed to accommodate them. Taking this second group into the plan at the beginning will powerfully affect the whole outcome of the continuation school movement. Can the public afford to leave these groups without provision for their further education? Is it fair to these young people to do so?

Can the community afford to provide free public education? For years we have felt that any community having five hundred boys from such homes as could afford high school education should be provided with a school building, faculty, and necessary equipment, plus athletic fields and other important features. Yet if that same community were to have five hundred boys of the same age out at work, earning \$300,000 a year, it

still seemed to some like a new, dangerous, and extravagant idea that they too have some equity in the moneys spent by the community for education, or that any special provision should be made for them.

The character and volume of business in the future will fundamentally depend upon two factors—taste and productivity. Both of these factors will be most powerfully modified by education. We are bringing up too many boys as “colts” so that they will not be able to pull a load when they become “horses.” Economically it is stupid to stint the purchasing power, of ten, twenty, or thirty future years for any advantage accruing to but three or four immediate years. A long adulthood, with its accompanying responsibilities, spent upon a low serving, earning, and buying plane, is too big a price for business to pay for the privilege of hiring youth upon terms that take no cognizance of educational needs.

Many argue that all this should be taken care of in full-time institutions. They suggest the trade school for practical training. The full-time trade school has its place, but as an institution it has its limitations. Only those may attend it whose parents are able to support them while attending. The trade school can never be made sufficiently varied in what it offers so that it will not funnel the young people into a few crafts. For volume and variety of trade training we must depend upon an apprenticeship plan supervised and supplemented by a day part-time school. Today, all over the country, if it were not for the golden flow of trained adults who have come and are coming to our shores from other lands we would be bankrupt for skill. Some of our brightest and best young people have succeeded in acquiring training by our present unsystematic scheme, but on the whole we have been making our own American youth into the great American half-baked.

It is interesting to note that the wages of young people of high school age actually working in Milwaukee amount in the aggregate to more than the current expenditures for the operation of all our public schools in that city. Is not this group entitled to some consideration? Regard this group as prospective customers, and it gives one a new view of them, making the expenditures in their training appear more definitely an investment.

But even when the economic argument is accepted, there is the matter of the inconvenience to employers. It is said employers will not hire young people who must come to school one day each week. They say they will fill the jobs with older people. Good! If there are older people unemployed needing jobs, then certainly these younger people needing school ought to be in school.

If this answer seems conclusive, the question is asked: “What can you do in school one half day a week?” Strange that employers, who fear the influence of one hour, once a month, at union labor headquarters, should be so certain that nothing can be accomplished in from four to eight hours once a week at a school supported and administered to cooperate with them for the young person’s welfare!

Again, it is said that the young people do not like the part-time school

and compulsion is a bad thing. If this argument were to prove true upon analysis, we would, I think, be obliged to abandon all compulsory school attendance. I am satisfied it is not true. Of course it is incumbent upon the school to develop "drawing" power, and that can be done. Nevertheless, I think the part-time school is working under great disadvantages. Exploiting parents and discommoded employers frequently perpetuate a state of mind upon the part of the pupil, hard to overcome. If the school were to work with the employed student body trying to stir up opposition to the employers with respect to wages, working conditions, etc., using the same methods as are used by some opponents of the school, I am sure it would be easy to create a very antagonistic spirit toward the employers. The ethics of any responsible school administrator will not permit him to retaliate in kind.

Parents, employers, and sometimes the students themselves, have urged, at times, that required part time at school diminishes weekly wages and interferes with promotion. There may be some instances where this is true, but usually the cases will not bear examination and analysis. On the other hand, the opposite effect has resulted in very many cases.

To close the Milwaukee part-time vocational school would be the equivalent of placing two thousand four hundred additional young people upon the labor market full time. Were the school to be abolished, wages of this group would undoubtedly fall. This is a subtle economic problem not easy for parents nor inexperienced young people to understand. It is not easy to bring young people to see the immediate far away, nor to bring the distant in time close up. That is, however, one of the problems of these schools. Exemptions are frequently urged, but it must be shown, when such requests are made, that when anyone is exempted from the requirements of the part-time attendance law those who are held for attendance have not had a fair chance to compete for the job in question. We must not hold some to a program and let others "get by."

In our fourteen years of experience, not a single one of the objections to the continuation school has proven true. With some six thousand people seeking voluntary attendance of less than eight hours weekly, it cannot be contended that nothing valuable can be done with the twelve thousand coming eight hours each week. The necessity of adjusting industry to receive these twelve thousand employees upon a basis of five days per week has not been unsurmountable, and has not led to fewer being employed. The age of the employed group has been somewhat increased and this is one of the good effects of the law. Restriction of immigration has led to some pressure because the labor of those under eighteen is desired greatly. But these young people are so soon to be the men and women of our city that people are beginning to see the importance of their proper training. So far as the cost is concerned, education is so clearly the source of our national wealth that it becomes obvious that we are only taking the "seed corn" out, in taxes, whereby to raise the next crop.

In Milwaukee we are completing a \$3,500,000 building, with \$700,000 in equipment, to take care of this part-time group. We have over three hundred teachers and are spending \$800,000 annually in operating the school. Yet no project ever undertaken by the city has received such unanimous support. All elements of the community—political, racial, and religious—are supporting the movement. The social as well as the economic consequences are becoming apparent. This work is spreading throughout the country. The larger conception of the work must prevail and generous financial support must be given it. The part-time continuation school must not be made a Cinderella in the household. This great body of teachers can help. I trust I may have served to create a better understanding.

THE CHILD AND THE MILL—ABRIDGED

KATHARINE DOZIER, GAINESVILLE, GA.

Lovers of children and seekers of truth will consider this topic without prejudice or bias and devote a clear head and a sympathetic understanding to its discussion.

The child of our Piedmont Belt in the south is the one we know, the one we have taught for twenty-five years, and we speak with assurance that we do know. We shall endeavor to present simple, concrete facts in such a way as to impart real knowledge of existing conditions, and to compare with these conditions former environment and conditions of living affecting the child under consideration.

The tragedy of the isolated mountain or farm home is veiled by the romance of distance and sentimentalism until the average individual never has any true conception of its real conditions. What avails freedom to the slave of bitter poverty? What good does bracing mountain air do to the hovel with wooden shutters closed tight to keep out the "night air?"

What advantage of mountain spring water polluted by surface drainage? What sort of diet does "pone and fry" furnish to malnourished children with tobacco supplied as a special luxury? What freedom of action can be secured by the slave of illiteracy? To all the sentimentalizing of story writers who rave over "the Anglo-Saxon untrammelled on his mountain height" and lament his "descent into the toils of the industrial bondage" of the manufacturing plant I would ask "What has he lost that is of real value to himself or to society? What contribution did he make to society in "his untrammelled freedom" except a lunatic wife driven mad by hard labor, illiteracy, and isolation? A malnourished family with an occasional idiot? A still to supply raw corn liquor to further stupefy and bestialize the human family? An unsanitary home? An ignorant progeny? To beget ignorance that it might beget more ignorance? What has "his descent into industry" done for him?

Freed his wife from worse than slavery. Taught her to cook and sew and care for her new-born baby and her family. Assured her child of equal opportunity in education, health, and recreation.

Provided a good home with modern conveniences and sanitary surroundings. Taught the entire family the value of community relations, and developed a sense of social obligations entirely wanting in former environment. Offered an opportunity for gainful employment and a means for supplying all necessities and some luxuries. (Our plants average an automobile to every family.)

In the law of averages, in weighing advantages and disadvantages, in calm consideration of actual facts, what do we find to be the simple truth as it applies to the child in the mill village?

Before I went to work in the mill village I was a mountain missionary teacher for several years. Brought up in our Piedmont Belt I had known our people intimately all my life. As a mountain teacher I drove many, many miles in a buckboard, and everywhere I found a group of fifteen children I organized a little cove school.

Two families usually furnished the requisite number. I placed a teacher in the mountain cove and sought out another group. I lived in their homes. I shared their sorrows. I heard the cry of the mountain women for a chance for their children. Or I found them apathetic and worn with burden bearing, too tired to care—dragging out a wretched existence with poor food poorly prepared, scant clothing, ignorant of the proper care of themselves or of their children, illiterate, hopeless.

And then I came to the mills. I have many of those very same families in our mill village I had in the mountains. The shiftless father is working regularly. He can not live here unless he does work.

The mother works in the mill or not, as she pleases. Most of our mothers stay at home. Lights, water, comfortable surroundings, neighbors, schools for her children, the church of her choice, recreation of many types to suit every taste, all these things and more, are blessings she has never enjoyed before.

She is happy because her child can go to school, can be properly clothed and housed and fed. And she knows that when her child does go to work that his labor will have a wage compensation to give him many things he could never have enjoyed in his barren mountain fastnesses. She knows too that she need not let her child work when he is old enough to work unless she so wishes. That he need not find work in the mill unless he so desires. We have furnished from one plant alone a school superintendent of a large city system, a number of teachers, as many ministers, many farmers who have saved enough money in the village to buy their own land, a number of small merchants, bookkeepers, clerks, telephone girls, but we are proudest, of course, of those who have earned promotion in our own industry. The master mechanic in one of our mills learned to read and write six years ago in our night school.

His twelve children are among our brightest and best, and he plans to send them all through high school, where his second daughter is now a pupil. His oldest daughter has recently married a member of our basketball team and the young people have good prospects. The second daughter plans for college, and from illiteracy to college in two generations speaks

eloquently for our industrial centers. Practically all of our younger workers have finished the grammar school and an increasing number each year attend high school and college. In one large family three generations of illiterates have been redeemed and one of the connection is now in high school. Our mills show as large a percentage of children attending high school and college as the respective states show. We could multiply these true incidents and examples until you would be exhausted in listening to a mere recapitulation.

We speak only a simple truth when we assert that the southern cotton mill has done more toward the Americanizing the native Anglo-Saxon of our land than any other agency. Individualistic in the extreme, uneducated, antisocial in many respects, he has learned quickly and well once given the chance which his industrial life has afforded him. The time of exploiting the child is a thing of the past and the mill is giving to the child in its churches, schools, and recreation centers advantages he would not otherwise have.

When he does become old enough to work, he may still go to part-time and evening schools. He has always healthful recreation afforded him. His health is a matter of expert care and interest. His civic interests are ever in the foreground, kept there by skilled leaders who are employed to develop good citizenship. Libraries encourage him to read. Athletic clubs stimulate good sportsmanship. Social clubs help him to play. Gymnasiums and swimming pools are open for his use and pleasure. Health centers and free clinics provide for his physical well-being. Churches and Bible schools minister to his spiritual needs. And in all these activities his own individuality is sacred as the community leaders carefully avoid the attitude of paternalism, and encourage the individual to pay his just share for all advantages. Ignorant of every community obligation the isolated mountain dweller or hill farmer, learns in our industrial centers the value of common welfare, the joy of social intercourse.

He sees, often for the first time, his country's flag, and learns for the first time his lesson in civic responsibility.

Wisely directed his life finds pleasure in hitherto unknown joys. Musical entertainment furnished by his own bands and orchestras develops appreciation and his asthetic nature.

Recently forty of our boys and girls in the grammar school have organized a mandolin club and their fathers have bought the guitars, mandolins, banjos, for their own children. When we first began this work the mill bought the musical instruments for those who would learn to play. We have a piano in each of our assembly rooms and parlors. But the orchestra wished to have one in the band room they call their own; so they bought one without asking the mill to contribute a cent.

At first all our refreshments at our parties were paid for by the company. But now the young people's social club provides for its own entertainment, having all necessary committees for program, reception, refreshments, and paying each, his own part. We have at one of our plants a blonde giant whose ruddy face, blue eyes, and fine physique attract attention and elicit

admiration from all who see him. He is humorous, shrewd, kindly, and closely observant of those who visit our plant. Like all other independent, free American citizens, he is quick to see and to resent patronage. I can give you our general attitude toward those who express written opinions of our southern mills knowing little or nothing of actual conditions by quoting this native of our mountain belt:

When I see these fellows come around and begin in their high and mighty way to talk about things they jest naturally don't know nothin' about, hit makes my "Andrew-Saxon" blood bile, and I want wipe up the earth with the pore little snoopin' eejits. Then I get to thinkin', and I know theyr'e jest plum ign'rant and a tryin' to fool theyselves into thinkin' theyr'e smart and fust thing I know I'm feelin' plum sorry for them and a wantin' to learn 'em some sense. If they'll come often enough and stay long enough we'll learn 'em lots and they'll git to be plum civilized.

PREVENTING DELINQUENCY AMONG CHILDREN

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To you school people who have invited me to speak to you on the topic of "Delinquency of the School" I would say, first and last, that a very great reduction of our immense problem of delinquency and crime is most certainly possible. What we grievously lack to this end is coordinated public social effort. Some efforts to stem the tide are made, of course, but there is too little pulling together by the different agencies who should be interested in the prevention of delinquency. The school as one of these agencies, indeed an important one, has vast possibilities for detecting early delinquent trends and coping with them.

These are not arm-chair words; over years we have been making studies of careers, extending from childhood to adult life. And measuring failures over against successes we have been forced to the conviction that in a vast number of cases, commonsense effort following scientific inquiry would have headed off the careers, after early signs of delinquency trends have been perceived.

An established truism, that by this time should be known to everyone, is that the real roots of delinquency and crime in nearly all offenders are imbedded in the experiences and thoughts of youth, often of extreme youth. We must never forget that character is formed during school years. Get a boy through his school age, certainly through his high school age, without his developing delinquent ideas and habits, and it is to be shown statistically that he is very unlikely to show them later.

So all this terribly costly effort to catch those who have committed crime and the frightfully expensive methods of attempting to convict them, if they are caught at all—as they so frequently in America are not—and the punishment of them or the treatment of them, are part of a process of shutting the barn door after the horse is stolen.

Now, there is much in our civilization at present conspiring to produce

delinquency and crime—much that is realized and felt by any public-minded person—that a great deal has to be done about it if we are to preserve a decent dignity, self-respect, and even protection in our ways and manners of social life.

The school, as the first social organization in contact with masses of human individuals, has the earliest chance. Very frequently indeed the foreshadowings of trouble and the actual problem itself may be discerned in school life. From prolonged studies in two American cities, we could give actually hundreds of illustrations of this fact, namely, that the progress of a career frequently proceeded towards criminalism of the worst sort straight along from beginnings that were present and could have been observed in school life, and indeed sometimes were observed, but nothing efficient was done about it.

Let us not talk about blame; our schools have been so wonderfully beneficent in building up our nation's manhood and womanhood towards realization of the prosperity and the many blessings with which we are endowed. But I wonder if our school education has not been on the whole more aimed at achievement of material welfare than directed toward inculcation of good ethical standards of living. Is it true that, as a notable author recently says, the elementary school system does little more than make of its pupils "something rather less than good adding machines, fair atlases, and rather poor outlines of history," not aiding them to meet life, which is hardly a process of reciting sums, dates, localities, but which requires continuous judging, weighing, balancing, and drawing conclusions?

About the school centers the main opportunity for most important mitigation of the greatest destructive expense which, outside of wartimes, the citizens of our country have to bear.

There is temptation to dwell on possible systematic endeavors by the school to cultivate ethical discriminations and attitudes which would forefend disaster for the individual and save much for society, through mass prevention of delinquency. For it is actually true that the pupil in his day-by-day acquisition of training in the use of mental tools for life's work is more than apt to gain no sort of fine background of thought, of ideas, and imageries that form the sustaining tissue of satisfactory lives. It seems to be undoubtedly true that the content of mental life that is utilized in daydreams and fantasies, especially in youth, and out of which emerges persistent interests in the goals of life, is of vastly more import for behavior and the conduct career of the individual than is any amassing of facts or acquirement of facilities such as are the objectives of the ordinary run of school subjects.

One would wish above all to see the schools giving young people, not only many more discriminations of real values for life, but also affording them mental pabulum to be assimilated into their beings which may serve as a basis for the imagination, for the daydreams, and the ideals which are fundamental to the growth of a productive career, even as set in humble paths.

About codes of ethics to be taught in the schools, I know too little of

their value; you school people can judge them better. But from our many studies of human lives, we have come to know over and over the stimulus to right living that comes from mental pictures and ideas that represent the achievement of strong men and women, and the equally great stimulus towards misconduct and serious delinquency that is engendered in ideas and imageries that are concerned with the lives and conduct of clever, bold, and dashing misdoers and adventurers, whether the ideas be derived from what the individual sees, or reads, or hears from companions.

But the great opportunity of a school in the prevention of delinquency is also very specifically concerned with, first, the early chance for knowledge of facts in individual cases and, second, the possibility of initiating or having a hand in constructive effort in special situations. And special situations always are arising.

The acquirement of knowledge of the essentials of a particular case challenges the best intellectual effort and interest. To face a child with "Don't do it or I will do something to you that you won't like" in the fashion of ignorant parents or as the law does later to grown ups is a most ineffective procedure. It often brings trouble in its wake because the challenge to the child is always then to deceive, to try to "get away with something," to say "See if you can catch me." The game is on as soon as you say, "I will punish you if I catch you," and a very considerable pleasure comes in the thrill of the game.

No doubt the attitude of school people very frequently is that they can not attend to all the child's needs, that much of his ethical education must be given by the family. The inquiry and knowledge of influences is thus considered to be a family job. But the weakness of this is that many families leave everything to the school; perhaps they know nothing about recognizing the first signs of delinquency. And certainly they regard themselves as naturally inferior to school people whose profession supposedly leads them to understand mental life and causes of conduct.

And what this all leads to may be illustrated by a case seen by us recently in sedate Boston—an alert, inquisitive, merry, imaginative lad of 11 years, normally advanced in school, of good average intelligence. Tell me, where lies the responsibility for his delinquency? He has been in some petty street mischief, he tells us, but now he is charged with three times entering a school building and stealing there. Even this would not have been known if he had not confessed it. The last time he entered with another boy whom he induced to go with him to take some money from the teacher's desk. And what an adventure and game there may be in delinquency is shown by the fact that these boys bought with the money, among other articles, a pair of handcuffs. And then it was when they were playing "Gerald Chapman," one boy being marched handcuffed down the street by the other boy, that they fell under the attention of a policeman because they could not remove the handcuffs.

The story appears not a little ironical—money taken from the schoolhouse to satisfy interests that the school had not given the background for satisfying in a better way. And the father, a very decent man, though having

too much faith in our daily sources of information and education, said that his boy was bright and he wanted him to learn a lot and so he bought for him, this 11-year-old lad, two newspapers a day.

Consider the matter of truancy, the delinquency that above all others belongs to the schools themselves, truancy, the so-called kindergarten of crime. What does truancy mean? It means hundreds of different things; scores of causations that should be known and skillfully met. In a study of 4000 cases of more serious delinquency, no less than 40 percent showed truancy that was other than a rare event. The needs of these 1600 cases had varied most widely. And the work of attendance officers who merely held up the law as a threatening stick had usually in nowise accomplished satisfactory results.

If there had been repression of truancy there had been delinquencies breaking out in other forms. Truancy is a symptom, just as other delinquencies are, and the basic trouble may reveal itself in other conduct disorders if the essential cause is not ascertained and eradicated. School dissatisfaction, which is such a menace to the child's education and moral welfare, is not fundamentally altered by forcing him to go to school. His mind is his own and may wander off even in the schoolroom into all sorts of unfortunate paths, to his own and to society's detriment.

We may leave aside the discussion of defectives; their numbers among delinquents are not as large as was once supposed and their needs are becoming much better understood in school systems. There are the many children of quite normal and even superior intelligence, who turn to delinquency.

Thus another 11-year-old boy, unusually sturdy, mature in his mental attitude, considerably superior in mental endowment, reasonable, self-confident, courageous, sophisticated; we saw him not long since and found he had three years behind him of stealing, truancy, and staying away from home long hours. For this very bright boy school was unpleasant—he tells us in so many words that he doesn't learn anything that interests him, the teachers scold him too much. The ideas which he does revolve over and over in his head and in great detail have been derived from bad companions and the movies and the newspapers. In manly fashion he has rejected baser vices which attract some boys; it is the arduous life that delights him. He has created his heroes for himself out of current reading and knows their lives and their doings, their encounters with the police and the courts. Here before us we have a youngster desperate, but of wonderful possibilities and the school people haven't the least idea of what is going on in his head. Society's appointed guardians of his mental life, of his education, are not at all those who have given him his mental food.

It should not be understood that many children have such well-defined criminalistic ideas and impulses as these, but analysis of delinquent backgrounds does bring out many mental conflicts, notions of enjoyment, trends and actual habits of thought and action that have been very little touched, if at all, by life in school—5 days in a week, 10 months in a year—by the

social agency which has greatest of all opportunities, it would seem, for influencing opinions and judgments and interests.

What may be unearthed by careful study of a child who through appearance or action shows delinquent trends, is of such value for modifying the child's behavior and the protection of other children, that inquiry into it should be a very serious undertaking. To be found out are—the sources of bad ideation and bad experiences, the unfortunate championship, bad practices anywhere, the poor type of movie or theater, the hideous older person who influences children for the bad, the neighborhood and "hang-out," a gang or club in which there are evil communications, the inimical family situation. Finding out the real sources, the plague spots of moral contagion and contamination, opens the way to saving many.

Thus it is a whole community affair, this study of children who are delinquent. For very often indeed it is not so much the devil that is within, but dragons that are without, devouring our children, that have to be conquered and slain. Failing the ability to slay all dragons, it is for society to arm children by creating within them interests that so command them that they pass by the evil, unattracted by it.

And so scientific inquiry, leading to good diagnosis is requisite before treatment of delinquency is undertaken. These studies of children, where shall they be carried out? The child study departments of an older day in school systems were concerned mainly with defectives and their problems of education; in some places already the work of such departments has been extended into investigation of the still more important problems of conduct. But whether it can be done best in the school system itself or through the child guidance clinics or juvenile research bureaus that have grown up so rapidly in the last ten years depends upon the local situation. Be that as it may, such studies are absolutely necessary in order to get at the underlying facts, in order to treat the real causes of delinquency. The elements of physical and mental makeup, of experience and ideational life, and external influences, are not to be correctly known otherwise.

And then comes constructive effort. One may question whether any school system alone can satisfactorily carry out all the different measures that are necessary. It certainly is very doubtful, for example, whether, as proposed, the school can take over the functions of the juvenile court. Cooperation is the first need; coordination of effort. The juvenile court, if a court not given over to theories, whether of eugenics or of the use of punishment to break the spirit of delinquents, or of sentimental adaptations, but rather a court that uses scientific methods of gathering the real facts in order to do the right thing, should be cooperated with to the fullest extent. Juvenile court is not a criminal court—it is an agency of social protection, and it should be a court that deals with family relations and with the contributors to delinquency. And as it applies more science it needs more power; then it can show vastly better results.

In the school system itself, teachers who know the problem from even their professional training, attendance officers who have had good training in social work so that they can make effective contacts, and school visitors

and visiting teachers have the best of all chances to bring about cooperation. Of course, families must be drawn in, but it is unfortunately the fact that the parents who ought to be in the cooperative endeavor are not those who are usually found in parent-teacher associations. Juvenile protective agencies or the police themselves, if they will work intelligently, are necessary agents for subduing personal influences and environmental conditions that are the breeders of delinquency. To handle the child alone and allow the destructive influences to continue in existence is social hypocrisy and inefficiency, which the child, we find, himself frequently resents. The weakest part of the social fabric in its relation to delinquency, even in otherwise good communities, is in the lack of really good cooperative endeavor. So frequently, for reasons of self-protection, social, and personal laziness, or of egotism, agencies, and departments play too little with each other; there is not the teamwork that could contribute most greatly to the prevention of delinquency.

And so, we are forced to appeal to our wonderful social organization—the American school system—for help in our great national problem of delinquency and crime. From the accumulation of facts concerning the minds and lives now of thousands of delinquents, we assert and insist that because of the early beginnings of careers, because of the great chance of the school for early inquiry and for setting in motion good constructive effort, because of the opportunities that there are for establishing cooperations and coordinations about school life as a central point of vantage, the school must play a more glorious part than ever in the development of a better citizenry.

THE CHILD INSTEAD OF WAR AS A CENTER OF WORLD INTEREST—ABRIDGED

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There is a legend of a cliff from which was afforded a magnificent view, so wonderful that people often risked accident for the thrill it gave. It is said that in the attempts to get the view, many people fell upon the rocks below. Enterprising physicians grasped the idea of building a hospital at the base of the cliff to take care of those who fell. Finally, some one came along and put a railing around the dangerous place and the hospital went out of business.

For many centuries, the nations have resorted to military training and equipment for the purpose of self-protection. Those who have advocated a high state of preparedness have urged war as a means of national solidarity, the development of national courage and growth essential to protection. They have been building hospitals at the base of the cliff. The real solution is in bringing up generations who can live together in

the spirit of fraternity and justice. It is more difficult to prepare a nation for peace than for war. The glamor of war, the pomp of military ceremony, the glitter of trappings, the thrill of martial music, the heroism of the battlefield, and the constant urge of excitement thrill the young. We have made of our flag a military rather than a civil emblem. We have builded a patriotism upon defense of country and the idea of a foe. If, in the advance of society, we can produce a consciousness of right and justice, and international moral consciousness and a due regard for international traffic rules, armed forces will eventually become unnecessary.

Education a directive force—No age can be considered wholly scientific until we are able to measure the amperage of the human individual and to establish certain definite governing elements in our educational processes. We are able to propagate plants and to cultivate them to whatever perfection we may desire. We are doing the same with lower animal forms. We must have faith that the human individual is susceptible to a definite culture and that such influences can be brought to bear in his life at its formative period as will shape its trend and direct its future. This premise is based upon observations of what has already been accomplished and what we know directly of the underlying principles of education. A teacher who does not believe that his work will have a salient influence on the life of the child for his good and the good of society has no reasonable excuse for remaining in the profession and for the acceptance of his compensation. It goes without saying that as a profession we believe that if it were possible to formulate a definite code of ideals such as we would see embodied in future generations and if we could teach these to the children of the world, we could determine now in large measure the qualities, characteristics, and attributes of generations yet unborn. In the past, education has not been widespread. No effort toward universal education has been put forth. Civilization, like Topsy, merely grew up under the dominating forces of the super-man, but in the upward climb of civilization, we have come out upon a great plateau where we can view intelligently the whole human race and where we can begin to devise ways and means for such form of leadership and training of the youthful generations as will produce more desirable results. Teaching is conscious guidance. Is it possible for the present ruling generation to consciously guide the first steps of the new generation in paths of safety and in fruitful fields? There is no work comparable to that of training childhood, no work as far-reaching, no work so important. The young generation is made of these individual children and as each individual is taught, so the ideals of the group will be formed. Today, the culture of the child as a means of human advancement is engrossing universal attention. Too long have we tried to reform through adult life. We have never wrought a single reform in one generation. The adult generation is too conservative, too set in its ways, too fixed in its habits, its likes, dislikes, and prejudices. If we would change the trend of affairs and work a definite reform, we must begin with the children. The last decade has dashed many an old-

time custom and oldtime procedure upon the rocks and has broken up conventions of long duration. We are freer today from the traditions of our ancestors than we have ever been. It is a good place to begin. If we would have a settled world with stable government, a great world community with peaceful neighbors a hundred years hence, we must begin today and we must begin with childhood.

Childhood is the hope of the world. Impulses for good move upward slowly. Man is by nature a conservative. He clings to what he learns and believes and is loth to give up original conviction. He does not jump into conclusions. He grows into them. Open-mindedness is not a trait of human nature. Men balk at changes which are far-reaching. They prefer the ills they have to others they know not of. They have a natural fear of the dark, and things not experienced are dark. Conservatism is as great a virtue as progressiveism since it keeps us from running headlong into danger and fear seems to be part of God's plan. It is only as man's eyes are opened to a new view by accident, discovery, or invention does he lay aside the old.

To turn from the clouded horizon of the passing day to the rosy-hued dawn of tomorrow is the pleasure of the optimist. I am glad to be one of them. In fact, I can not see how any one can be a teacher and be otherwise. If I did not believe that education can direct the trend and character of the future, I could not continue with it.

Our old world is not on the rocks; the ship of state will sail on into midstream and the individual will continue to climb. Achievement both of individuals and nations will continue.

What unfathomed possibilities are wrapped in the swaddling clothes of an infant! Who can measure a child's influence for good or ill? Before it can lisp a word, it has brought to one woman the sweet consciousness of motherhood and to one man the added strength of a new responsibility. Every day, that child in its development touches some one. Its innocent prattle is music to some ears. When he reaches school age and his parents send him to us, they entrust him to our care—this priceless creature. What do we do with him? We teach him science, mathematics, language. But it is not sufficient that he know how to measure the forces of the earth, how far the stars are separated and space extends, what forces attract or repel; not enough that he be taught all the facts of human knowledge, unless he know how to live and how can he know how to live unless he knows that he is linked by indissoluble ties to every other human being? Great is the responsibility of the teacher. We can train the child as we will. We can shape his affections, mould his character, and carve his full stature in life. He will follow where we lead.

Teaching the primitive—It has been our philosophy in education that the child is a replica of civilization and in his educational experience passes through all of the periods of evolution known to the race. He is at first a barbarian, even almost cannibalistic, and he moves by stages up to the point of civilization with his seniors. Based upon this philosophy, we have

begun by teaching him of the primitive types of life in the different countries. The Indian is good to begin with. The Eskimo is a good second. The cave and cliff dwellers follow along but we fail to go on and give him the full knowledge that there are children in many lands who have perfect right to be his equals.

Human nature—It is an old saying that human nature never changes, that it not only does not change but can not change. This is a fallacy, a hopeless viewpoint. If true, then man may never expect to pass out of his uncivilized into a civilized state—from the barbaric to the Christian. This is an old saying and an old philosophy but it has been disproved by every historic change man has made. It changes in our viewpoints, in our standards of right and wrong, in our dealings with our fellowmen. All one needs to do is to pass through the archives of history. The chamber of tortures in London Tower will convince anyone that man's inhumanity to man is changing. We are more human in our dealings, not only with dumb creatures who, by nature of our superior endowments, are our servants, but with our fellowmen. Human nature represents our inclinations as influenced by our emotions. Thus, it can be cultivated and purposefully guided.

The international mind—The "international mind" may be defined as the consciousness of a world society with definite and necessary relationships. It is a sort of attitude of sympathy and appreciation which bears an intelligent understanding of other countries, peoples, and events. It is the basis of an international morality which helps us to judge other people according to their own standards and to appraise their work after an adequate acquaintance with their nature, conditions, and motives. The international mind is essential to world understanding and to good will, friendship, and justice in international contacts.

The new element in citizenship—a world viewpoint—Among the advancing ideals of the race, citizenship has exercised a decidedly evolutionary spirit. It was used in the beginning to designate a non-soldier from a soldier, then a dweller of a city which was a community of citizens. "I am a Jew, a man of Tarsus, a citizen of no mean city," said Paul. It later became applicable to a country but in this advanced age, it takes on a world-wide aspect in its moral sense. A citizen of this new world state is one who owes allegiance not alone to the welfare of the country in which he exercises political rights, but who owes to his fellowmen and the world over his allegiance to the highest motives of advancement and who in turn should have protection from them. To this extent, it is possible for one to occupy a position in and to be a part of a world citizenship wherein all members of all civilized states are working for the highest interests, welfare, culture, and general prosperity and happiness of all men. There is likewise a world civics or science of world government, just as there is a science of sociology or the government of the individual among his fellows, where one comports himself not wholly according to his own

individual interests, but who makes and receives concessions for mutual good.

This is not the "internationalism" we have learned to fear. It is virtually the building of an "international mind." One's paramount duty is to his country and to the citizens thereof and he is not to throw it down, obliterate its boundary lines or scrap its flag. Christ said, "Render unto Cæsar the things which are Cæsar's and unto God the things which are God's." Government and national life are the means through which we reach the world state. To destroy them defeats the ultimate end of dealing in world goodwill and justice among nations.

Force as a prevention of war—It is entirely justifiable to believe that the several schools advocating the extreme of either militarism or pacifism are entirely sincere and believe firmly in the doctrine they preach. The militarist tells us that full preparedness is less costly than neglect of defenses; that we must have war to end war; that the only way to secure peace is to be better prepared than our neighbors; that peace makes a nation flabby in courage; that war is the cement in national solidarity; that courage, physical fitness, and patriotism are specific results of military training and that war produces the best fibre. The pacifist, on the other hand, would literally disarm. He contends that war is murder, which is non-Christian, and that passive resistance is better than the destruction of life.

At present, complete disarmament would be disastrous to the nation which undertook it. This can come about only at some far distant day as a realization of that world brotherhood which still is largely idealistic. But progress towards such an ideal can scarcely be made while the belief prevails that in superior force lies the guarantee of national safety. We have in a measure progressed beyond a point where individual safety is secured only to the man powerful and to the armed, as was the case in the days of the frontier. If the large and strong persisted in dominating the small and poorly protected, the world would slide back into the vilest form of human slavery. In order to protect the weak, we have established codes of law defining individual rights and guaranteeing their safety.

There is a constant striving to maintain a more or less fictitious balance of power in war. One nation or one group of nations insists that it should be permitted by some general agreement and some conceded merit to preserve its advantage which may be due to geographic conditions, natural defenses, range of commerce and trade or by the precedent of past ward.

So long as this psychology exists and controls diplomatic negotiations, whether held in Geneva, The Hague, or Washington, there will never be more than a gesture of disarmament. And so long as it is believed prudent or necessary or advantageous to maintain ratios of armed strength, there will continue to exist fear, jealousy, and distrust.

We must have faith that it is possible to relieve humanity of the entire burden imposed by hatred and war. War is the result of hatred, hatred the result of ignorance, and ignorance is the problem of education.

Necessity of diplomatic machinery—Nations find easy contacts today and

the ease and frequency are rapidly increasing. Every steamship which crosses the sea carries the products from land to land and distributes them to meet the necessities of the human race. Great ocean liners and rapid trains are carrying the citizens of one country by the hundreds of thousands into other countries where they mingle with each other, becoming amenable to the laws of the country in which they sojourn but still protected by the laws of the country in which they live. This develops a new type of citizenship, broader than that known in any other age. Nations are now touching nations rather than being separated by great seas and mountain barriers. It is said that tourists in Italy last year left 185 millions of dollars net, sufficient to balance the budget of that country. This is only an example of what is being done in every land. This new condition forces upon the nations of the world the necessity of absolute agreements, which must be brought about through some international body specifically designed to meet the necessities. Whether it will be a league of nations, an association of nations or a parliament of the world is yet to be determined. There must be some diplomatic machinery set up, for the world can not go long without regulations with individual and national interests overlapping so extensively. It is indeed difficult at the present time, owing to the national jealousies, racial hatreds, and international misunderstanding and suspicions, to secure one hundred per cent efficiency in any overhead body which might be established until after repeated attempts and ultimate perfecting of the viewpoints and contacts. Even now, it is reported that the experts of the League of Nations, working on the basic elements of international agreements, have abrogated the principles of the Washington Conference. This in itself shows the futility of carrying on diplomatic programs until they are backed up by definite underlying and ethical principles and a moral consciousness which will make agreements mean more than scraps of paper. It is the mission of education, either religious or secular, to furnish these values. Diplomacy must furnish the machinery; education must furnish the skilled operator. It is impossible for education to perform its service except through the rising generation. This means a long process and a long look into the future, but unless we begin now, we can not hope ultimately to win. Nations are too distrustful of each other. One nation looks askance at the military equipment of another, scrutinizes it closely and reads in it a menace of national invasion. Nations are sparring for commercial advantages. There is too much racial hatred and prejudice, too much international fear. These must be driven out. They can be driven out only through the spirit of justice and the development of friendship.

THE CHILDREN OF TODAY—ABRIDGED

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I believe in the child of today. I have more faith in the child of today than I have in the child of yesterday. He is a better child. He is a bigger child. He is a cleaner child. He is a finer child in the truest sense of

those words, and that good child could only grow well in a good world. No matter what people think, this is a finer world we are living in than it was ten years ago or twenty years ago, because good children could never come out of a wicked world, and wonderful children must come from a wonderful world.

I cannot help but think of the picture that I have seen, a picture of a woman making syrup, and every once in a while the syrup would boil up to the top and then the woman in charge would take her ladle and scrape the syrup off the top of the pot and sometimes throw it in the fire, and then she would take another stick and put it on the fire. She must keep that pot boiling hard. She must keep it bubbling so that constantly the impurities would come to the top and then she would take them out and purify it. But what a mess she did make, the fire and the stuff that was cast off into it. What a smell there was, and how bad it looked, but the hotter that fire was and the more the syrup boiled, the surer the impurities were to come to the top and be cleaned off. That syrup must not be allowed to cool, for if the impurities settle to the bottom and become part and parcel of it, then the product would be unclean. It might be palatable. It would not be so good to look at and it probably would not have the same lasting qualities. This syrup must be pure; it must be clean; it must stand the test, no matter what the test was, in order to bring the higher price in the market.

The world of today is like fire under the pot. It is speeding the growth of children, and speeding that growth means that the children are becoming older sooner—and I don't mean older in years, I mean older in wisdom and in experience. Sooner in life are they casting off the impurities, sooner are they being made clear and pure so that they may live long and as long as they live stand the test of all kinds of experiences that come their way.

You know, the thing we should fear is not freedom for the child, but it is the old clamping down, shutting down on the life of the child, closing it in. It is the old discipline that we have been trying to run away from, and have succeeded.

You know, we have been talking for a generation about the lengthening period of infancy. We are going to talk now about the lengthening period of active life, of joyous life, and the shortening period of infancy, where the child begins sooner and is going to last longer.

Not only have we freed the child, but we have set a higher standard for him. We have measured his knowledge in a much more daring, in a much more clear-cut way, in a much more mechanical way. When he sits down to pass an examination the child of today does not have the feeling that we used to have. I remember that our training was something like this: That if we only half got the answer, the teacher would remember us and give us credit for knowing the rest of it. Now the child must know; his knowledge must be definite. It must be complete; it is measured almost on mathematical precision.

The same thing when it comes to morality. We have set a higher standard of truth, because we want the child to know the truth. We want the child to be able to tell the truth, but to be able to tell the truth first to himself, and if he can not do that, anything that he says that seems to represent the truth is not true and we have no use for it.

We want the child to be happy, but somehow or other in our idea of happiness we put a new meaning. We want him to be happy because we feel that happiness is that condition of the soul that makes him most responsive to the beautiful things that are around him, and he can then respond to the ideas of the world, if he is in the right attitude. That is the very highest standard, and we who are constantly pushing toward that standard are unconsciously making him better.

We want a child to be reverent today, but somehow or other our reverence, our religion, has a different meaning to it. We feel that in order to have a child reverent he must have an appreciation of the great universe, so great that the most powerful imagination can only glimpse it, and he must have a notion of the universe that is so high that the most gigantic imagination is staggered by it, something that will stand between the smallest and the biggest. We want his reverence, his religion, to accomplish that fact. We want him to have the feeling, to think when he looks at the sun and calls it, "brother," when he says that the wind that kisses his cheek was his brother and the birds of the air were his brothers, and the brook that came down the mountain side was his brother, and the snake under his feet was his brother—that nothing that is created, high or low, can be anything but brother. It is that notion of religion that we want in a child; it is that notion of reverence that we want to aspire to.

There is no place in this ideal of ours for jealousy. I remember when I was a boy it was perfectly natural for the gang to fight the other gangs on a religious question. It seemed to be perfectly proper for the Catholics to fight the Jews and the Jews to fight the Protestants and the Protestants to fight both of them. In fact, there seemed to be a suspicion that you were not loyal to your religion if you didn't fight for it and hate the other fellow.

That notion of religion no longer holds. We know now that nobody can be a good Catholic and hate anyone or anything; that no one can be a good Jew and hate anyone or anything; that no one can be a good Protestant and hate anyone or anything. Hatred must be foreign to his notion of religion.

Then, too, we have a new standard of physique, a new standard of cleanliness, a new standard of conserving one's energy. It is not just the matter of using the child's energy, but it is the conservation of it. It is the way he walks and the way he carries himself that counts, and that is a better standard than we ever had before when we said "Get there. Win. Win by all odds." We want the finer thing, because we know that the finer thing means that the child shall last and last long. Whichever way

we measure the child of today we find him better than the child of yesterday, we find him more intelligent.

I remember some time ago in my school I sent a team to take part in a prize contest. This team went over to another school, and when they came back I said to them, "How did you make out?" And one of them said, "We won." "Well," I said, "was the prize announced?" "We don't know, but we won. We went there and they showed us into a room and said to us, 'do everything that that room tells you to do,' and they went out. So we looked around and we found a mirror. We found cocoa, and we found cereal and we found fruit, and that meant breakfast to us. So we sat down and prepared the breakfast and set the table and put the breakfast on the table. Then we looked around but nobody appeared, so we sat down and ate that ourselves. Then when nobody appeared we washed the dishes and we put the things away." Then one of them looked at me and said, "and we didn't put the table cloth back in the ice box where we found it either." Sure enough, when the prize was announced, they had won. The prize was \$20. The question now was, what to do with the \$20? So they felt that they needed some things in their apartment, a couple of beds and a little table and a lamp shade, and \$20 would not go very far. So they bought some lumber and some hardware and they called in a boy from the shop and showed him what they wanted, and in two months the beds and the table and the lamp came back.

Those children had not only won the prize for taking care of themselves but they had afterwards invested that money very intelligently until it came back to them ten fold. That is intelligence of a very high order. They began very early in this season of life.

I remember one fellow coming into school on the very first day, and he had with him a bucket and a shovel, and when the teacher asked him what he was going to do with that, he said, Why, didn't she know his daddy told him that when he went to school he would have to dig for his education, and so here he was. And so from the minute they come until the minute they leave they are wide awake. And they are loath to leave. One boy, I remember, after his mother had gotten work papers for him, came back one day and took his work papers and put them on my desk and said, "I am going to stay in school." They feel that they need school and they feel that the school is worthwhile and that is the tremendous achievement that the teachers of America have made, to make the child feel that this education really functions in his life and that he must have it in order to go out. First we have the keen child, secondly, the keen and wonderful teacher who can make him feel that way about it.

And the more intelligent he is, the more intelligent this child, the more humane he is. I remember having a teacher that we thought was a very old man. He was not so old. He was about my age, and I remember the things we did to that man. I suppose I will have to spend a brief period somewhere to atone for my share. But we tortured him. We pulled him around the classroom by the coat tails. We spilled the ink. We threw

the slates where they didn't belong. We talked. We marked out things when he was not looking. We sat down in the wrong chair when there was a tack there. There was nothing that we didn't do that the mind of a child can conceive to torture that man.

Not long ago I saw an old man in the classroom. He was 78—in a modern classroom. He was a teacher of pottery. He was old, too old to teach, and yet there he was. He was so old that he found fault with the very best material. He was easily angered. He was easily tired, and for half an hour at a time he sometimes would sit in his chair fast asleep, and there were the children in the school room. If we had an invitation like that when I was a child what a glorious opportunity it would have been, and yet those children never molested the old man. They took the very best care of him. When they thought he was sick, someone would go and find a teacher and take him to that classroom. They became more humane, these children. They have a finer sense of humor than children ever had before. We no longer tie tin cans to the cat's tail. We take care of the cat just as we took care of the old man.

These children have a finer sense of humor; they have a finer sense of duty. They dress better—oh my, they dress better. I remember seeing one morning near the entrance to the zoo, near my school—I am very near the zoo—sometimes they visit me when they should go to the other place, and vice versa—but this day was Sunday morning, a beautiful Sunday morning in Spring, and I went over to the zoo, and in front of the zoo was a great pansy bed, just as golden as it could be, and there was the most delicate perfume coming from it, and I stopped to look at it and I noticed that the adults as they came to the entrance made straightway for the cages beyond; rarely did they stop to look at the pansies, but the children stopped and they looked at the pansy bed and they smelled of them. That is the modern child. I say these children are far better, whether we measure them in their intelligence, whether we measure the bigness of their hearts, whether we measure their morality, they come into the world better equipped than children ever were before. They come with a righteous heritage. They come with greater possibilities. Just as we have learned to take care of children, so have we learned to conserve their energies. They come with an understanding that is very keen. They have read and they read the lessons that the geologist tells. They read in the papers the story of the geologist who found the track made by the worm two million years ago. The child reads that and something clicks in his brain and he says, "If a worm can make a mark that lives two million years, why can't I do something that is worth while and that will live two million years. I remember the story of an astronomer who saw a new star in the Heavens, and as he watched it night after night the star grew bigger, and from a very faint star it became a star of the first magnitude, and then as he watched it, it began to disappear, and finally it disappeared altogether, and the astronomers computed that that star was a million light years away—a thousand light years away doesn't make much difference so far as the understanding is con-

cerned—that that star had been dead a thousand light years, yet its image still lives to inspire men that lived on this earth to read the message. A child reads that and says, “If a star may live a thousand light years, why may not I? Why should I perish? I am part of it all.” When the child reads that the Creator made man in his own image the child says, “I too must create if I will be worthy of Him. I must create so as to be worthy of my chance, so as to be worthy of the people that have brought me forth, so as to be worthy of the teachers that inspire me, so as to be worthy of the country in which I live.” There is the impulse to do and to be in this modern child, and it is so strong that it can not die. It is so strong that it will overcome any difficulty anywhere. He looks to us, to these teachers for help, but not too much help; for guidance, but not too much guidance, for he would do a better job than any of us have done, and he can only do that through freedom and through the fine appreciation that we may give him.

I must tell you one story before I stop, and that is this. Not long ago I had a visit from a man from India. He may have visited some of your schools. He said he had been sent out from India to find the country where the people were most enthusiastic about children, the people who were doing the most for children. He said he had been to every country and he had come to America last. He was sailing the next day. I said, “How did you find things?” He said that the one country where there was genuine appreciation of childhood was America. “I am going back to carry the message of the teachers of America to the teachers of India,” and as he went out of the door, somehow or other there flashed before me another picture. I thought of the three wise men that had come out of the East, who followed a star that they might find their way to the feet of a child. I thought of the teachers of America, touched with the spirit of wise men, and they too were following the light that they might find their way to the heart of American childhood.

THE TRAGEDY OF MISUNDERSTOOD YOUTH¹

BROOKS FLETCHER, REPRESENTATIVE IN CONGRESS FROM THE STATE OF OHIO

In discussing the subject, “The tragedy of misunderstood youth,” I hope briefly to present some reasons why we must supplant the traditional educational methods with an educational technic formulated on the laboratory findings of the research biologist and the research educational psychologist in their efforts to explore and understand the human personality.

“But,” exclaims the professional educator, “what contribution can a non-professional, a mere newspaper man, and a politician at that, make on such an intricate issue as the one involving a scientific approach to solving the riddle of the human personality and most especially the mysterious personality of enigmatic and paradoxical youth?”

¹ This is an abstract. For full address see *Congressional Record*, July 16, 1926, page 13238.

You, out there in the great audience, who are college and university presidents, and you other distinguished leaders in the field of education have the right to challenge a layman who presumes to make a contribution in the field in which you are highly trained specialists.

Therefore it is only fair to you that I should first attempt to answer the doubt that is in your mind at this moment by stating, in the spirit of modesty, I hope, that although editing and publishing newspapers has been my business, my life vocation, and politics my avocation, yet education and working with young people has been my life hobby and shall continue to be the rest of the way.

Every man, if he is to remain normal and get the most out of himself, should have a vocation, an avocation, and a hobby.

A hobby is the device through which a man may sometimes find his greatest chance of self-expression and for usefulness.

It was in self-defense that I first got started in this work of trying to help young people adjust themselves to their environment and succeed where they are with what they have.

First I became interested in finding out why some of my newsboys with only a few patrons on their carrier routes had two or three times as many complaints for inferior service telephoned into the office against them by the dissatisfied people to whom they were delivering the newspapers as other boys of the same age with three or four times as many patrons to serve.

You can not do much for young people unless you understand them and you will never understand them unless you have been at least a superficial student of both biology and psychology.

Even if you are fortified with a knowledge of biology and psychology you will not be able even then to understand the behavior of young people until you develop the interrogation point mind.

By the interrogation point mind I mean a mind that has acquired the mental habit of everlastingly asking the questions: Who? What? Why? When? Where? How?

Those six words are the golden keys that will unlock for you the mysterious doors to all the knowledge about people or about things you will ever possess.

So I approached the newsboy problem with a why. Why this amazing difference between boys of the same age as revealed by the efficiency scores based upon the complaint records of the subscribers to whom the boys were delivering our newspapers.

I soon learned that the parents did not know much about the factors contributing to the behavior of the boys. The parents could think only in terms of effects. They did not seem to know how to analyze and think in terms of causes.

I am not one who joins in the popular pastime of criticizing parents over much. It is easy to blame parents, but the parents have their hands full and in their defense it must be acknowledged they have had no more chance to

receive the right kind of instruction on how to adjust themselves to the rapid changes going on in their environment than have their children.

The fact of the helplessness of parents and the futility of traditional methods of discipline were impressed upon me in very dramatic fashion by the attitude of the father and mother of a boy who, for a long time, had been stealing money from our cash drawer.

Had the parents been permitted to carry out their idea in this case they would have beaten the boy and had him sent to the reformatory.

They were not permitted to commit either crime against the lad. Today the man who was that juvenile cash-drawer thief is one of the most trusted young officials of the largest railroad system in America.

We were not long in finding out that the teachers, like the parents, knew next to nothing of the personalities, the emotional, and the environmental causes contributing to the unsatisfactory behavior of the delinquent news-boys.

In fact, one young fellow, recognized as a "problem pupil," had been suspended and finally expelled from school; an offense against misunderstood youth in which teachers, school-board members, principal, superintendent, and the community at large participated.

The sympathetic service of a nonprofessional psychologist saved this misunderstood youth from the tragedy that might later have confronted him.

Today, because this formerly delinquent pupil has made so much of his life and achieved such notable success, he is proudly admired by the school that misunderstood him in his boyhood to the extent of stupidly expelling him.

The five processes through which we all must pass if we are to become somebody are self-analysis leading to self-discovery; after self-discovery a program of self-development; from self-development to self-expression; and from self-expression to self-realization.

With our present institutionalized system of quantity production in education and our methods of herd instruction, what chance has the average young person properly to be understood and to receive the scientific personal attention that will assist him in self-discovery, self-expression, and self-realization.

It is essential that we understand the needs and challenges ahead of modern youth, that we may adjust our educational objectives to meet realities and thus reduce the vast number of young people who are compelled to succeed in life in spite of their education.

It is the obligation of those of us who are interested in education to fix it so that more of our graduates will be able to succeed in life to a greater degree because of their education instead of in spite of their education.

By success I do not mean merely making money or achieving distinction or getting into *Who's Who*. By success I mean, through self-expression, getting out of life what there is in it and leaving the world better because of our having passed this way.

The two most intimate urges with which we are endowed at birth are the urge to live and the urge to mate.

To satisfy the urge to live it is necessary to find something to do—a vocation, a life work—something to live for through which we can express our creative impulses and thereby earn a living.

To satisfy the urge to mate it is necessary to find the person to love who harmonizes with our own personality, the person who most satisfactorily helps us in expressing our gregarious and procreative impulses.

With infinite variations, indirect or direct, most of the questions the young folks have asked your speaker have been prompted by these two God-given urges that have more to do with our personalities, our happiness, our achievement, and our destiny than any of the other impelling life urges.

The millions of tragic matrimonial purgatories of the mismated indicate the degree in which the home, the church, the school, and the state, by their rule-of-thumb and guesswork, have failed in understanding and in helping the youth of yesterday to find the way toward the light.

It is not surprising, then, that observing boys and girls of today, noting the failures and the unhappiness in the lives of so many grown-ups in their environment, should challenge the parents, the teachers, the preachers, the priests, and the statesmen now to give a more scientific answer to the question involving the most important factors in human life.

I believe not in legislation forums but in the laboratories of the scientist will war eventually be abolished; justice established; equity be realized in industry; and a government of the people, by the people, for the people be converted from a figure of speech into a reality.

The problem of the misunderstood youth is of vital concern to the statesmen because of the possibility of misunderstood youth developing into problem adults with inferior morale and a tendency toward malcontent and antisocial behavior.

We have with us almost a horde of mob-minded, conclusion jumpers who express opinions on everything and possess accurate knowledge of nothing.

It is from this source that we most frequently hear the tiresome repetition of bromidic opinion to the effect that the younger generation is wicked, devilish, incorrigible, going to the dogs, and on a greased toboggan hell-bent for perdition.

The report of the elaborate survey recently completed by the Department of Labor giving the actual facts concerning juvenile conduct knocks the wind out of the arguments of those whose obsession is the defaming of the young.

Since the human race began old people have knocked young people. The reasons they do it are partly unconscious jealousy of youth; sour grapes, a sense of inferiority, a feeling of having soon to step aside, and the awareness of approaching senility.

It is amazing how many people advocate being good after they are no longer able to kick up their heels and be a little bad.

If you analyze it you will find that much of the current criticism involves some disapproval of the liberties youngsters are supposed to take with one another in the social relation. When it comes to this kind of criticism in

which sex is the big idea it is astonishing how large a number of old folks doing the criticizing have bum memories.

I hold no brief for the conduct of youngsters, but when it comes to their private conduct I stand up for them because after 17 years of crowd and personal contact with over a million of them and correspondence with thousands of them I am convinced the young people are just as good as the rest of us and certainly better than most of us were in our own adolescent days.

You think back a little. Recall some of your own pranks and escapades. If we admit the truth, could the youngsters be any worse than we used to be or tried to be or would have been had we been able to get away with it? If your memory is in working order answer that and keep a straight face, will you?

How grotesquely absurd to think that human nature changes in the period of one or two generations so that a generation ago the young folks were good little angels and now the young folks are bad little devils.

A number who slander the young in the matter of personal relation are victims of repression, suppression, and not having lived normal lives emotionally have become neurotically and erotically lopsided. So, they continue constantly to denounce that which they have missed out on and unconsciously most desire.

You probably would be surprised at the great number of moralizing, nicy-nice folks who are having the immoral time of their lives imagining the young folks they see together must be immoral.

It is easy for certain types of people to do all their dissipating in their imagination.

If we do not watch out this thing we call civilization may get the best of us yet. Certainly we are producing an enormous number of day-dreaming dissipators and cut-ups who develop into emotional cripples with unstable personalities which is responsible for legislators having to increase appropriations to enlarge our insane asylums.

A number of the defamers of the younger set need the attention of the psychiatrist.

It is dangerous business to mood too much over what we imagine to be the shortcomings of other people. It is good mental hygiene to cultivate the habit of minding our own business.

No small number of youth baiters who rave about the conduct of the young people now are doing so because in their own day they were rotten themselves.

Much of this holier-than-thou virtuous attitude assumed by youth knockers is an unconscious middle-age attempt to substitute virtuous talk as sort of a palliation for unvirtuous conduct of years ago.

Of course a percentage of our young people are going the limit, but is it much wonder when they see so many older people around them going the limit right before their eyes? We can not fool the youngsters. They are on to us.

If half of the critics of the young would spend their energy setting the young a good example, it would help heaps.

This I found to be true soon after I started to give prizes to the students for their essays on the subjects: "The citizen in your community you want to be like when you grow up and the reasons why." It was from this material that I wrote the book entitled *Who is Your Hero*, which is a discussion of the psychology of imitation or why we become like what we like.

To understand youth we must ask the scientist to come to our aid. The day for the sentimentalist is past.

To stop antisocial behavior and crime at its source as a first aid to teachers and parents there must be established a psychological clinic in every community.

The psychologist and the biologist, if we give them their chance, can, by a scientific study of the adolescent personality, predict with fair accuracy the behavior and what we may expect from that personality when it becomes adult.

Most of the good or the bad that motivates behavior is first in the consciousness of the child by its environment before it starts to school. Therefore parents, as well as teachers, must have the advantage of the psychologist's service.

I need not remind you professional educators that long before the child starts to school the personality of thousands of children are almost ruined by the stupid efforts at discipline on the part of neurotic adults.

It would be easy to fill a book with cases that have come within my own observation as one who has tried to find a way out for the youth who have come to me in the hope of receiving help that would assist them in groping their way out of the jungle of emotional and mental bewilderment toward the light.

Summarizing briefly only a half dozen out of several hundred cases with which I have had personal experience, there is the mother who attempted to discipline her daughter by pouring hot sealing wax in her ears; the parents who made a stammerer of their boy by the misuse of suggestion; the woman who converted her daughter into an hysteric by locking her in the basement because the girl had difficulty with her algebra; the child who committed suicide because of her failure to pass the examination; the boy who hanged himself in the cellar because his mother humiliated him; the so-called smart alecks by the thousand who are the victims of an inferiority complex for which stupid adults are responsible and whose smart aleckness is merely a defense device of the subconscious.

It is time we began employing the means at hand to reduce the number of tragedies of misunderstood youth who, without being properly understood, must go through life emotional cripples and with handicapped personalities.

Even to a layman the need for a revolution in the field of education is startlingly apparent.

To illustrate: the present traditional method of examinations as a means for ascertaining a student's qualifications for advancement is a shameful waste of the teacher's time, an unreliable test of a student's ability or reliability, and to many boys and girls so emotionally disturbing and terrifying

as to be dangerous to their personalities and therefore must be modernized by scientific technic.

This thing of putting boys and girls at the mercy of teachers who have never done anything in all their lives but go to school themselves, whose education has been obtained exclusively from books and the artificial atmosphere of the schoolroom, and who, because of not having real practical contact with life, know next to nothing of reality is an educational crime and is one reason why so many dazed thousands of youngsters come out of school to meet the challenge of everyday experience book educated beyond their intelligence or with an unmarketable education of no use to them in the business of living.

The disposition of the workers in the laboratory of the educator scientist to be intimately identified with and willing to learn from the laboratory of reality and practical everyday life is one hope of those who wish to eliminate the possibilities of tragedy for misunderstood youth.

The legislators of all the nations of the world must somehow be made to understand that not the battleship but the schoolhouse is eventually to become our greatest means of national defense.

The teachers who are training their students to develop international mindedness are doing more toward stopping the hell on earth we call war than all the battleship builders on the globe.

If H. G. Wells knows what he is talking about when he says that civilization is a race between education and catastrophe, then the educator's responsibility is equalled only by his opportunity.

Our first obligation in training the youth of today who are to be the citizens of tomorrow is to get into youth's skin and through his young eyes look out upon the confused and jumbled world that we may see life as youth sees life.

So, after all is said and done, to succeed in this business of lending a helping hand to modern youth we must ourselves become as little children in order to enter the realm of childhood's understanding and thus fulfil the obligation this generation owes to the coming generation.

THE FINAL TEST OF THE AMERICAN SCHOOL'S SUCCESS—ABRIDGED

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What is the final test of the success of the American school? The final test of the success of the American school is the success of America as a democracy. And having said that much I might as well quit and we could go home, for all I shall say after that is of little account and hardly pertinent to the discussion, and yet, being expected to develop it to a certain extent, I will attempt to give a few tests of the success of the American school prior to reiterating that final test of the success of the American school.

Our fathers, when they gathered in this city 150 years ago and enacted that report drawn up by the committee, and adopted it as their Declaration of Independence as we now speak of it, were thinking, as the utterances of that time show, that a democracy that was uneducated had no assurance of success, and that the public school, maintained at public expense, educating all the people to an understanding of the principles of democracy, and having the right to select their own rulers, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed—it was this that laid the foundation that has been secure during these years. Franklin and Jefferson and Washington and Lincoln and all the founders down through the years since, have been conscious of the aid of the public school in interpreting for the people the ideals of America, for it was Franklin who said, "Good education of youth has been estimated by wise men in all ages as the surest foundation of the happiness both of private families and of commonwealths." And Jefferson himself said, "A system of general instruction which shall reach every class of our citizens from the richest to the poorest, as it was the earliest so it will be the latest of all the public concerns in which I shall permit myself to take an interest."

Some two or three years ago I made a pilgrimage to Monticello so that I might visit the home where Jefferson had lived, that I might look on his grave and read the inscription on his monument that he himself had written, in which he wished to be remembered for three things: As the author of the Declaration of Independence and of the statute for religious freedom in Virginia, and as the founder of the University of Virginia, each making for freedom, freedom of conscience, freedom of government, freedom from ignorance. And tonight as we gather here on this one hundred and fiftieth anniversary, remembering that today has been designated "Founder's Day," we come to pay our tribute to the men who laid this foundation upon which we have builded since, and they knew and we know that free public education is the only insurance that America has that as a democracy it shall continue to exist.

And what is a democracy? I heard a definition a year ago that seems to me to be a little finer than any I have heard otherwise. The speaker said it is not a system of government; democracy is not in itself a condition of society. Democracy is expecting great things of common people. And tonight we come here to dedicate ourselves to that proposition, that the public schools somehow are going to help us to realize these great things from all our people. When equal opportunity, an equal chance for all the children of all the people shall be realized, then democracy will be firmly established. And that was expressed not only in the Declaration of Independence, but a few years later when they came together to draw up that great instrument, the Constitution. They knew, as we have known since, that only a government that rests upon a system of intelligence of a well-educated people shall be secure. And a word from Washington: "Knowledge is the surest basis of public happiness." And Monroe speaking: "Let us by all wise and constitutional measures promote intelligence among the people as the best means of preserving our liberties."

Two weeks ago I stood on the platform of our own music hall. It was a joint commencement of our high schools, and I stood there for a half hour while a thousand young people marched down the center aisle and up the steps and on to the platform, and as they reached it they paused to salute the flag. Then they passed on and seated themselves upon the rostrum and the thousand were behind me.

When I came to present the diplomas to this thousand young people I said as they marched up the hall that evening, I was thinking not so much of them as I was of the 4000 who had started with them twelve years before in the first grade, children, some black and some white; some coming from homes where, on the previous Saturday their parents had gathered in the synagogue and worshipped God, and some from homes where on the Sunday before their parents had gathered in the cathedral or the church or the chapel. They were just children. Some of the parents were born across the sea. Some of them traced their ancestry straight back to Plymouth Rock, but they were the children of America, and now this thousand pupils received from my hands diplomas which certified that they had completed in a satisfactory manner their course of four years in the high school and of eight years in the elementary school. Our work was done. Whether it had been good or ill, it could not be changed, and I was looking forward to the future years when these thousand young people should take their places in the great world of affairs, in industry and commerce and in the professions, and whether they should exhibit those qualities of character, whether they should exhibit that character of citizenship that made it worth while for them to have attended these schools for these twelve years. But I was much more concerned as I thought of the 4000 who were not there that night, and I said to the parents, "If they were here, you would need much additional space. Every seat in this hall would be filled by the children who have not gone on to the high school and completed the course, and some six or eight hundred would be standing in the aisles and about the rear." And the thing I am concerned about is whether we have discharged our full duty to the 4000. I am not so concerned with this 1000 who have gone on to completion, for the most of them are headed straight towards college and toward the professions, but I am tremendously concerned about the 4000 who are not here, who have gone out to work. Are they prepared for work as well as we have prepared these 1000 for college, and have we prepared the 5000 equally for life? The American public school will never discharge its full obligation or meet its full measure of success until it takes full account of those who go to work, as well as of those who go to college.

In Cincinnati we have built a high school that was formerly called the "East Side High School" and is now known as the "Winthrow High School." It is an all-American school. We have taken our motive from Independence Hall, from Faneuil Hall, from New England, and from the south. We have cast it in the type of the old Colonial period, because we somehow believed that if we could catch the feeling and the look of that

period of our fathers and bring it together and put up this structure, that within its walls we might help these young people to a greater appreciation of what America has been and what our fathers have done for education, that they themselves might be better inspired to carry on the task which has been submitted to them. And in writing the inscriptions for the tower, which is crowned by the lantern from Independence Hall, on one side I selected that inscription from Ruskin, that success comes only from toil, only from work, and for the front of it I selected that inscription from the Holy Scriptures, from the Psalms, which says—and I wanted the teachers and the children to see that inscription as they cross the bridge from the street to the school each day—"So teach us to number our days that we may apply our hearts unto wisdom." And then as we undertook to express the spirit of what this school was and what it should stand for, upon one side we cut these words: "To reveal truth and beauty," and on another, "To develop intelligence and skill," and on another, "To inculcate social and civic ideals." And then, thinking last of the individual, who must be thought of first and last, "For a broader and richer personal life."

And then for the inscription on the tower the architect said I might have just forty words, no more, no less, that I must say what I had to say about public education in forty words, and so I selected these forty words to express my conception of what shall be the final success of the American public school:

All who will may enter and find within these walls equal and varied opportunity for a liberal education, based alike upon art and industry, with books and things, work and study combined, and where good health, the spirit of play, and joy in work well done shall abound.

And this, I conceive, will be the final test—or one of the tests—first perhaps of the success of the American public school when it is conceived in such a way as to admit to its opportunities children who shall find there a liberal education which takes into account both work and study, art and industry, and which sends them out prepared in health and in spirit and in joy for service.

And the next test that I would like to give would be this: That our public schools must make for national unity. When I hear the children recite their faith to the flag, which ends with these words which we all hear over and over again: "One nation, indivisible, with liberty and justice for all," I know they are not thinking, as we are not thinking, of the days of the Civil War. I know we are not thinking in terms of geography, but that we are thinking in terms of a national unity of spirit, where all conditions of men and women and children alike shall have the opportunity that makes for the unity of America.

And I would apply as our second test this: Does the public school teach the fundamentals of education? Now, if this were not an audience of teachers, I can imagine how delighted the people would be to think that we are going to return to the days of reading and writing and

arithmetic, if we were to get rid of all the fads and frills and fancies that have grown up about the work of the public schools. But I am not thinking of these things, and I am going to read to you, if I may, my answer to the fundamentals of education under this expression "What shall we teach?" Teach the fundamentals in education. Interpret life in terms of life. Confine books and things, work and study. Teach honor, duty, truth, courage, faith, hope, love of home and of country, reverence for God, for each other, and for all his lowly creatures. Teach self-denial and self-reliance, kindness, helpfulness, sympathy, patience and perseverance, obedience and punctuality, regularity, industry and application, love of work, joy in service, satisfaction, and strength from difficulties overcome.

Then for fear that some one might think that I did not realize that the tools of education had to be taught, I said: Teach reading, writing, and arithmetic, of course, but not as fundamentals, except as in the learning one is taught to read fine things, to write beautiful thoughts, and to know that in the fundamentals of life the sum of one happiness can not be obtained by subtracting from others, and that the way to multiply the value of one's possessions is to divide them with others, especially with those in need.

Teach geography, but only that to world knowledge may be added world sympathy and understanding and fellowship.

Teach history, that against its gray background of suffering and sorrow and struggle we may better understand the present and may project a fine future.

Teach civics, to make strong the ideals of liberty and justice, and to make free, through obedience, the citizens of a republic.

Teach science, but always as the handmate of religion, to reveal how the brooding spirit of God created the world and all that is therein, and set the stars in their courses, in accordance with the eternal laws that He Himself had ordained.

Teach that which gives intelligence and skill, but forget not soul culture, for out of this comes the more abundant life bringing forth the fruits of the spirit.

Teach music and art and literature. Reveal beauty and truth. Inculcate social and civic ideals.

These are the real fundamentals in education, for character is higher than intellect and the soul shall never die. And there has never been a time when school and college needed more than now to take account of what they are teaching and the way they are teaching, and to place the emphasis where it belongs, on the things that make for right and noble living.

It is not enough to know and to be able to do; we must become, for knowledge and skill without character count for little.

"So teach us to number our days that we may apply our hearts unto wisdom"; that we may look to the hills from whence cometh strength, and may climb the heights for a clearer view.

And the third test which I would apply to the success of the American school would be this: Are they helping to give American ideals to the foreign born who are in our midst?

Several years ago I was riding west on the North Coast Limited and it was Christmas time, and I knew when Christmas Day came that our foreign born in Cincinnati would be gathered in the American House, our neighborhood house where friendship and fellowship abound, and I sent them this little message as they gathered about the Christmas tree on that day: "Peace and good will for the American House and for all who come within its gates, to those who come from afar seeking a new day, and to those who bring gifts of sacrifice and service, offer them to a new-born and finer American citizenship." For I knew that they had come from many lands across every sea, seeking in this land of their adoption, the land of Washington and Lincoln and Jefferson and Adams and Franklin—seeking here the pursuit of life, liberty, and happiness, denied them in the land of their birth and guaranteed them in America. And the public school shall not discharge its full duty unless it recognizes the obligation to implant in the hearts of these foreign born who have come to our shores the ideals of America and an appreciation of the work of our fathers and their contribution to this great democracy of the west.

The next test of our American schools shall be whether those who are sent out from its doors have within them the ideals of citizenship that expresses itself in terms of service. In the Cincinnati schools in our eighth grade and high schools we have clubs that are called parts of the civic and vocational league. Several years ago in addressing them, without very much thought, I gave them an expression which they have accepted as their slogan, and these are the words: "Know your city, love your city, serve your city." And these young people are seeking to know their city of the past, to serve the city of today, that they may vision a finer city of tomorrow. Every time they gather they repeat from memory and from their hearts the Athenian oath:

We will revere and obey the city's laws and do our best to incite a like respect and reverence in those above us, who are prone to annul or to set them at naught. We will strive unceasingly to quicken the public's sense of civic duty.

Thus in all these ways we will transmit this city not only not less, but greater, better and more beautiful than it was transmitted to us.

Not only service and preparation for life's work but for living. Now I hear some one say, "But where does the culture come in? Is there any place for culture?" My reply is simply this, that culture comes not from a particular form of study but rather from a spirit awakening by study. For one the approach to the spirit and the opportunity for self-expression will be found in art; for another, in music; for another, in literature; another, in nature; for others, it will be found in the forge, the anvil, the carpenter's bench, in the machine shop and the counting room, or in farm and household occupations. Culture is the ripening of life, the inner

self-enlargement, and the daily toil and the daily rest must supply the opportunity and the incentive for this enrichment of life. If it is not found here, it will be found elsewhere. There must be less study for study's sake, and more study that expresses itself in terms of work, learning that becomes knowledge through its application, wisdom through its expression in terms of unselfish service.

And this shall be one of the tests, the final test of the success of the public schools, the American school, whether it is giving that enrichment of life, that inner enlargement, that self-expression that finds the opportunity through work and study.

During the first two weeks of July, 1776, there was gathered in Boston a group of Indians who had been called into conference with the Colonial authorities to decide whether they would cast in their lot with America in its struggle for freedom, or whether they would maintain their allegiance to the old government of England. They had been discussing this subject for two weeks and had not arrived at a decision, and on the evening of the 16th there had been delivered by horseback riders to Boston the first printed copy of the Declaration of Independence which had been adopted in this city on July 4th, and the presiding officer, Governor Bolton, read to the Indians this Declaration of Independence, and when he was through, Ambrose, a Nova Scotia Indian, used few words but he expressed a great deal, for after the reading he simply said: "We like it well."

For 150 years, not only in America but throughout the world, wherever men have sought freedom and liberty and justice, wherever they have sought an opportunity for self-expression, the words of the Nova Scotia Indian have been expressed, if not in these words at least the sentiment, "We like it well." In America 150 years after the Declaration was drafted, we can still say "We like it well," and we are gathered here on this one hundred and fiftieth anniversary to pledge anew our devotion to the ideals of America and to the public schools as that which makes these ideals secure, and until we are able to express in terms of public education these ideals of America they shall not be secure.

Give every child his right of school,
Merge private greed in public good,
And spare a treasury overfull
The tax upon a poor man's food.

No lack was in thy primal stock,
No weakling founders builded here;
Thine were the men of Plymouth Rock,
The Huguenot and Cavalier.

And thine shall be the power of all
To do the work which duty bids,
And make the people's council hall
As lasting as the pyramids!

Thy great world-lesson all shall learn,
The nations in thy school shall sit,
Earth's farthest mountain tops shall burn
With watch-fires from thy own uplift.

Great, without seeking to be great
By fraud or conquest; rich in gold,
But richer in the large estate
Of virtue which they children hold.

With peace that comes of purity
And strength to simple justice due,
So runs our loyal dream of thee;
God of our fathers! make it true.

O Land of lands! to thee we give
Our prayers, our hopes, our service free.

My Flag—born in the days of Revolution, baptized in the days of civil strife, rededicated to the cause of human freedom in the great world conflict; in peace and in war it has ever floated as the symbol of liberty and justice. May its stars never grow dim, and its stripes never fade. And may the children in the schools over which it shall float be so taught to love justice, to hate evil, and to do good, that they may forever protect the flag and the ideals for which it stands.

Just off the coast of Maine, near the little town where I was born and to which I have returned every year for forty years that I may drink in the spirit of peace and contentment which surrounds its woods and shores, a little group of islands known as "Georges Islands" rests on the bosom of the sea. Some ten years before the *Mayflower* came to Plymouth, Captain Wainwright from Archangel came to this group of islands, dropped anchor in the harbor and he named it Pentecost. Years have gone by and it since has become a simple little fishing harbor where the boats rock at noontime and where the men camp on the shore.

As my little daughter was growing up as a child we talked about Georges Islands and she often said, "Will you take me to Georges Islands? And I said, "Yes, we will go to Georges Islands some day, child." The years went by. Each year we talked in the summer time that some day we would go to Georges Islands, and in the winter time we promised ourselves that the next summer we would go to Georges Islands. But the years went by and she grew from childhood into girlhood and into youth, and we had gone from Massachusetts to Montana and we still talked that some day we would go to Georges Islands. And one day when the wind was just right, over the sunlit sea we hoisted our white sail and in the mid-afternoon the keel of our boat grated on the shore. We climbed the rocks and stood on the highest point and looked back over the course we had come to the west. We looked to the north, where the mountains lifted above the ocean and to the south over the great expanse of ocean, and then returned to the east, toward the morning.

Far on the eastern horizon a bit of deeper blue joined the blue of the sea and sky and she said, "What is that?" I said, "That is the most eastern land of the United States. That is McKinicook," and she said, "Will you take me to McKinicook?" And I said, "Some day we will come to McKinicook." And the years went by and one day we came into that harbor. We climbed the rocky shore. We came to the highest point on the island. There were fine homes well kept, surrounded by gardens, and the school house was the center of the island life. We looked through its windows. We saw the pictures of Washington and Jefferson and Lincoln on the wall. We saw the map of the United States hanging there. We saw the flag by the teacher's desk, and we came away, but we knew that the people were secure, for the final test of their devotion to America centered in education and in the schools that gave all the children a chance to know of our fathers and to protect the ideals and the institutions that they had founded.

Tonight we have come to Founders' Day. One hundred and fifty years we look back over the course of our national history and then we turn our vision toward the morning and we look ahead and we know that some day if we are sure to maintain the ideals of education that America stands for, we shall come to that far-off land of heart's desire where social justice, where freedom and equality of opportunity, where liberty shall prevail and where our nation shall be secure. We stand tonight and we look back down the long years to Jefferson and Washington and Adams and Franklin and Hamilton and they call us to dedicate ourselves anew to the ideals of freedom and justice that they themselves died for.

I came one day to the western coast of the United States and looked on the inscription that was carved in the city of San Francisco to the "Pioneer Mother":

Over rude paths
Beset with hunger and risk
She pressed on toward
The vision of a better country.
To an assemblage of men busied
With the perishable rewards of today
She brought the threefold leaven
Of enduring society,
Faith—Gentleness—Hope
With the nurture of children.

It is for us teachers of America to rededicate ourselves to these unfinished tasks, that government of the people, by the people, for the people, may not, shall not perish from the earth.

ADDRESS

J. A. C. CHANDLER, PRESIDENT OF COLLEGE OF WILLIAM AND MARY
WILLIAMSBURG, PA.

The National Education Association represents in round numbers 200,000 teachers, out of about 900,000 teachers in the United States. Too many people in educational work are not affiliated with the National Education Association. We who believe in it should see that others join, and that through the National Education Association the teachers of the United States may present a solid front. The bar associations of the respective states and the American Bar Association have a larger percentage of lawyers in their respective organizations than we have of teachers in our organization. The various state medical associations and the American Medical Association represent a larger percentage of physicians than the National Education Association represents of teachers. The trade unions of this country represent a larger percentage of skilled workers in their respective trades than the National Education Association represents of teachers. This should not be. Are we awake to the fact that while we are claiming to be a profession we have not as a unit the same amount of professional zeal and spirit as displayed by other professions? A mighty race is being conducted by all the professions for proper recognition. Have we entered into this race with heart and soul, or are we doing it in a lukewarm, half-hearted way?

The teaching profession deals with practically one fourth of our population, when we include normal schools, colleges, and universities. The colleges and universities alone have lands, buildings, and endowment the equivalent of about two billions of dollars. On normal schools, high schools, and elementary schools, the annual expenditure is about two billions of dollars a year to take care of the instruction of approximately twenty-five millions of students. Fellow members of the National Education Association, considering the Herculean task that we have to perform, or are attempting to perform, two billions of dollars annual expenditure to educate twenty-five millions of students is almost a bagatelle. We are therefore engaged in something at which we can not succeed thoroughly or in anything like a satisfactory way, because the financial support that is provided makes the task impossible. A stupendous task, therefore, lies ahead of us. It is two-fold.

First, with the meager resources now at hand we must give the very best training possible, in spite of the discouragements and the difficulties that lie ahead of us, because of meager salaries in so many cases, scarcely enough upon which to eke out an existence. If we are conscientious we will give the best that is in us to this work, even though we do not have value received, so that what we do, may be recognized as work faithfully performed.

The second great task is that the public must be educated to the fact that we are able to support education and will, *en masse*, demand that

adequate support shall be given, and will see that it is given. Here, indeed, is the rub. Every investigation shows that during the last twenty years there is no material difference in expenditures for schools in proportion to the amount of wealth in the states. Generally speaking, the same relative ratio has been maintained between school expenditures and economic values for the last twenty years, and yet during this period the percentage of enrolment has increased, the percentage of students remaining in school has increased, and the demands upon the educational institutions of all kinds from the public at large have more than doubled. In other words, when all the increases are considered, the relative support is smaller. This is a sad fact in American education and in American life.

Herbert Hoover, in speaking before the Department of Superintendence in February, said: "Unless our educational system keeps pace with the growth of our material equipment we will slip also." Can we get the public to grasp this idea? Why is it that taxpayers, legislative bodies, and our tax-raising bodies do not listen to the appeal of teachers? Frankly, it is because we are paid out of the public crib, and the revenue-raising bodies do not consider teachers as taxpayers. They will listen only to taxpayers. If the National Education Association, if the state teachers associations, if the local teachers associations hope to accomplish any great reform through legislation it will have to be by cooperating with great lay organizations of wealth producers who pay the greater proportion of taxes. The day has come when we must work indirectly with heart and soul, and with our whole mind and spirit we must convince the taxpayers of every community, and get them so filled with the idea of adequate support to public education that they will organize and they, themselves, will do the work of educating our tax raising bodies so that proper financial provisions for education are made.

If today, therefore, I have any message to bring to you in the short time that has been allotted to me it is that in our teachers organizations from this time on we bend every effort to enlist the whole-hearted support of lay organizations, of men and women of trade and industry, with whom we will work, relying upon them to produce in those in authority in local, state, and federal affairs a real recognition of the dignity and necessity of universal education throughout this broad republic.

More missionary work is to be done on our part in the communities in which we live. Education for education's sake should be emphasized among all classes. Education is a costly jewel but when it is obtained it becomes priceless and does not depreciate with age and use. We must remove the impression that so often exists in our respective communities that the schools and the teachers are a necessary evil rather than a necessary good. No longer can we take for granted that the people do believe in the work of the teacher, and that throughout the nation the foremost thought of our people is how can we make it possible for the oncoming generations to be more useful and better than the present generation. We must have a declaration of principles which demand adequate support for schools and which will give to the children an opportunity to face more

successfully the problems of our complex civilization. Yea, I go further and say that the time has come when every organization, political or otherwise, should have more discussion of the rights of the child, and less discussion of the rights of man.

A STUDY OF THE PRESCHOOL AGE—ABSTRACT

BIRD T. BALDWIN, DIRECTOR OF IOWA CHILD WELFARE RESEARCH STATION,
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Today we are in a position to determine with a fairly high degree of accuracy the capacity of a child in a great many phases of his growth at any age in his development from six months to sixteen years. For example, we can predict from the child's stature at birth what his adult stature is likely to be. At the age of two or three, we can determine certain phases of muscular control, a measure of intelligence and probable mental growth, his ability in the pronunciation and use of words and the size of his vocabulary, and his social attitude toward others. For his accomplishment in school we have many standard educational tests. In short, we have developed systematic methods for measuring his capacity at any age and the amount of training which he can profitably receive. And, after all, isn't this the aim of education, to develop the capacity and abilities of each child to the maximum? The important problem is the increase in the amount of growth of each individual, based on his present capacity.

In our efforts to discover the native endowments, or capacity, of the children from birth to five years of age in our infant and preschool laboratories from the standpoint of physical growth, muscular control, intelligence, language, emotions, and social attitudes, we have found that little children's personalities can be tremendously modified and improved through modern methods of observation and training if the task is undertaken sufficiently early in their development. Physical growth can be increased or retarded, muscular control improved, new and permanent interests awakened, language habits completely modified and vocabularies enlarged, undesirable temperaments changed, and social aversion and extreme shyness overcome. Nature may furnish the basis for education, but environment, nurture, and training are the determining factors in producing the final product. In order to train or educate in any line we must always start with the child's present capacity and change it from "what it is to what it ought to be."

My first interest in child psychology began with the mentally defective child, then centered in adolescence; today it is with the preschool child, for I see the beginning of a majority of problems of adolescence cropping out during the ages from birth to six years. These, I believe, are the most important years of childhood.

Last Spring, by an act of the state board of education, the Iowa Child Welfare Research Station was officially designated the coordinating and directing center for all work in child study and present education at the

Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts at Ames, the State Teachers College at Cedar Falls, and the state at large. In addition to its extension work, the state college has its preschool laboratory and is training from 400 to 500 home economics senior students in child care and training. The State Teachers College is beginning its work with teachers. The university has many study groups that have been working for two years.

THE TRAINING OF THE VOLUNTEER IN EDUCATION— ABSTRACT

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Schooling is not an end in itself but is part and parcel of the greater adventure called education. We, as teachers, must be clearly conscious of the vital processes in education which are going on in the world outside the schoolroom. With these our own teaching must be in harmony.

As we consider the problems confronting youth today, we must challenge our own contribution and ask how future teaching can help youth to find clear guidance, accepted principles of action, and the willing, and all but instinctive choice of the good, the true, and the beautiful.

The scout movement is making a remarkable contribution to education. It is worldwide in its reach. It is voluntarily chosen by youth. It is led by bodies of earnest, intelligent men and women. It was conceived by a rare mind, and it has been interpreted by a devoted band who are not wanting in the knowledge of educational principles.

The movement appeals to youth itself. Boys and girls volunteer to take part in the movement; they join themselves to groups who desire to play the game. They ask for leaders, and fine groups of young men and young women have answered the call. These volunteer choices affect three generations. Youth in the midst asks to be led—young men and young women volunteer as leaders—and maturer groups in the community become sponsors of the movement. All these groups—old and young—learn as they go. They are interpreting an educational experience.

In the scout movement the group controls the game. Troops of scouts are divided into smaller groups known as Patrols. The captain leads the troop, but the patrol leader is chosen by the patrol. The recognized administration of the game, the choice of the work to be done, and the plans to be made, rest with the group. The scout spirit expresses itself in the accepted laws and promises. In all of these the scout considers and respects the opinions of others.

Here we have self-determination, the individual for himself, lost in group determination. A scout gives way to others as he learns to discern the needs and interests of others, or takes pride in the achievement of the group. This naturally develops a sense of comradeship and the will to share.

Here is a distinct contribution to the solution of the problems which confront youth today. The fact that it has been accepted by youth proves its inherent strength and the validity of its guiding principles.

The chief virtue of the scout movement can be maintained if it is rightly guided by trained volunteers and maintained as a volunteer movement. Let us hope that this can be done in genuine cooperation with the schools.

THE CHALLENGING EPOCHS IN THE LIFE OF A CHILD— ABRIDGED

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Reformers and revolutionists there have always been in the world who have been driven by some divine urge to "declare their independence." We, their admirers, erect sacred monuments to their memory and immortalize their deeds by celebrations. But the reformer and the revolutionist is doomed to disappear. We shall substitute intelligent leadership for reform and thoughtful development for revolution. Perhaps not yet.

The causes of the upheavals in human development are deep seated. There is the tendency with us human beings just as with the earth crust towards stratification and changelessness. There is the equally insistent tendency toward growth and change. The urge, the struggle onwards and upwards against odds is irresistible. There is no stopping a human being who has seen new light and has felt the divine restlessness within him. But usually, in religion, in statesmanship, in industry, he impinges against strait of dead traditions and is blocked by static institutional forms. Then a cataclysm.

Change and changelessness refers to the childhood and youth of culture. With the advance of civilization, institutions, customs, moral dogmas, law, become plastic expressions of the demands of growing life, and adapt themselves to the changing need of an evolving society. (Witness the 18th amendment.) The reformer or revolutionist may go out of business, but not yet.

In education there are always two or three constants and two variables playing against one another and demanding recognition. There is, in the first place, the *c* constant, (the Curriculum), the organized body of the wisdom of the race that must be put over into the minds of the rising generation; there is the *b* constant (educational behavior) called the school system which represents the institutionalized expression of the motions of humanity about the proper mechanics of acquired knowledge; there is the *a* constant, (educational authority), the embodiment of the conventionalized doctrines and dogmas about educational aims and purposes and objectives, full of prescriptions concerning how to acquire informations and skills. Over against these constants are the variables. There is the *y* variable (Youth), the growing type of an abstracted somewhat called

the developing child, changing quantitatively from zero to potential infinity and qualitatively, as if passing through all the colors of the spectrum. There is also the x variable (*Xenos*, the stranger or alien or eccentric one), the individual child with a provoking capacity of almost indefinite variation from the type, from genius towards idiocy and towards any one of a large number of variants. There is always trouble in our profession with the clashing consonants. Each variant, as in Algebra, is a problem, but worse, for there are so many of them and the "known" quantities are so few. The most serious conflicts, however, are between the constants—rigid and unyielding—and the variables, that never will stay put and are a distraction by day and a disturbance by night.

While the constants and variables are equally essential, I wish today to have the privilege of being the partial pleader for one of the variables. I beg to pose not as a reformer, Heaven forbid, but as the advocate of the growing child who has never yet been really discovered. So far, we have been quite too fully occupied with the constants—doctrines, curriculums, systems. It is so in our profession, as always in the rise of any bit of culture, that the constants get the first innings. They are concrete. They "come with observation." They are useful in organizing and integrating our complex social life. They give solid foundations on which our feet may rest in the midst of the swishing currents of progress. It is now high time that education be less the other half truth and hold before our thought that the curriculum is made for the child rather than that the child is made for the curriculum.

The discovery of the child psychologically and educationally has been going on fitfully through a century and is to be the delightful task of these immediate years into which we are coming. Our interests are focused thereon, the technic is becoming sufficient, and we are now quite well launched upon this adventure into a science of childhood.

The discovery of the child, like that of America, has been intermittent as to time and piecemeal as to locality. The first great explorers of this unknown country, the life of the growing child, make their excursions into the range of years from four to seven, the kindergarten years. These adventuresome souls—Froebel, Madam Montessori, Patty Hill, John Dewey—have felt and observed and thought their way into what is happening during this period. They have stopped and looked and listened; stopped their conventional rounds of pedagogical habits, looked the behavior of a real child in his natural estate, and listened with keen ears to what nature, who has been a long time on the job of evolving children, was trying to whisper. They heard the voice, they devised ways of helping nature in her program. So well have they done their work that the kindergarten is now the brightest spot in school life. The plays, games, and occupations are in tune with child life. The youngsters are happy. They are growing naturally in a "child garden." Strangely, the teachers are happy. They too are playing in nature's garden. Written within the immense variety of growth processes during these years are these three, inscribed in luminous characters: The free play of fancy, the spontaneity

of the play impulse, and made out of these two, the dramatic impulse. Through the free self-expressiveness which runs through the dances and songs and projects of the kindergarten there comes, through controlled life in action, the first fine integration of personality; through the free use of the imagination, which has always been our deliverer, children begin their entrance into the world of higher values in song, in art, and in personalities and other presences about them. Through their various occupations they enter sympathetically into the life of plants and animals, the thoughts and purposes of other people, even fairy presences. They are thus escaping in advance the prison walls of fact and circumstance which constitute the prosaic life of the average person. To enter actively and sympathetically the life of others, is that not the keynote to morality? No child can be cruel to an animal nor to a person, if it has lived in imagination the life of that creature through the use of song, story, and drama, and has ministered to its wants. It is the imagination that leads not only into morality but likewise into science, art, and religion. The kindergarten with all its appointments is the best school that has yet been devised. It is so because the kindergarten child has been discovered.

The region within this expanse of years between babyhood and full maturity next opened up by great explorers, like G. Stanley Hall, is the period of adolescence, the high school age, from the years fourteen to eighteen. As we have begun to get our bearings and interpret the growth processes in this interesting stretch of years we find that the nature life is working out here three great changes: the birth of the sense of a new selfhood on higher levels of mentality; the awakening of social impulses and the recentering the self in the life of the group, and third, a rebirth into values, values that are more than personal. The first of these has to do with the reconstruction of a selfhood on the levels of thought, of insight into fact and law, of the joy in achievement, and of appreciation of art and nature. The second of these events, with its inception in such signs as pleasure in group games, the gang spirit, and the love impulse, witnesses the ripening of the social impulses into devotion to the group, satisfaction in high service, and deep down loyalty to the group, whether civic, national, or international. The third refers to the rebirth into a world of fact, of inviolable law, of beauty and truth that exist in their own right. Science has exalted this world of beings by the use of such names as universe or nature. Religion has idealized it with terms like the over-soul, God, Brama. This third rebirth has been hitherto left to luck and to religion. It is education that achieves this consummate end of life most successfully.

These bits of knowledge concerning the dramatic movement during the high school period have come too suddenly upon us to allow as yet much of reconstruction of our educational technic. If the insight ripens and our methods and materials adapt themselves to the fresh insight we shall help to realize among our pupils more initiative, more cooperation, and more respect and reverence when standing in the presence of the high and wonderful things of human life and of the world order.

A country as yet almost unexplored is that of the junior high school. Hitherto it has been called by the students of genetic psychology a "transition period" which is a convenient word designating our ignorance of what is really going on. Hall designated it the period of "moral intergrum" as if the nature forces playing through child life had during these interesting years taken a rest or gone on a vacation. A few things are now beginning to come to light. During the years from eleven to thirteen there is a distinct increment in the power of children to reason and to think in abstract terms. There is sudden and sharp improvement in the power of right judgment when tackling a difficult problem; involving appreciation and insight. S. P. Franklin during the past two years has shown with objectively controlled observations that in comprehending the sayings and parables of Jesus there is more improvement during the two years from eleven to thirteen, mental age, than during all the years put together from eight to sixteen. Other studies are throwing light in the same direction.

For a good while we were feeling the futility of the work we were doing with the last two years of the elementary school. Witness: The establishment about over the nation of special schools to take care of the 7th and 8th grade pupils who were now ready, we thought, for a different sort of régime. Later has come the establishment of the junior high school which begins the rather serious work of the high school with the seventh grade. For many years we were blinded by our limitation of the ways of the Prussian system in the *Volk schule*. We were using the seventh and eighth grades essentially to no purposes other than to continue still the improvement of our rigid disciplines concerning the formal aspect of education, the mere mechanics of culture through these two precious years. If the facts indicated are better realized we are destined to see still further progress in the direction of really deepening the insight of pupils from every angle of culture—grammar moving in the direction of the beginnings of philology, nature study passing over into geological, botanical, and biological insight, a profounder hold upon the significant movements in history, a keener appreciation of the life of art, and so on through a long list of categories. If all goes well better use of this earlier period will make possible the release of new powers during adolescences and a safer and profounder integration of personality during the high school life.

I would make a few observations finally concerning the development of the periods of child life during the years of seven to eleven. This is the darkest Africa of child life, the great American desert of the public school system. It is so because we never as yet have had much wisdom to guide us in interpreting the mentality of boys and girls during this period. We have for most part been doing, for reasons that are clear to every student of the history of public schools, those things which are directly at variance with the facts and laws of child nature. The lads and lassies have been full of the passion for self-expressiveness. We have forced them into passivity.

Fortunately highly disciplined experiments have been made to demonstrate to us this simple truth. J. A. Gilbert some years ago showed by experiments on school children that about all the improvement human beings make in their ability to discriminate and choose among fine differences in sense experience happens during the years from seven to eleven. For example, it requires about a third of tone difference between a standard tone and a later presented comparison at six or seven years of age before it can be distinguished. Children of ten can discriminate under similar circumstances about one eighth of a tone and there is not much improvement after that throughout the whole stretch of years. The same is true with slight differences of color, of distance, and of magnitude. Experiments carried on by my own students in San Jose under my own direction have demonstrated the same fact. These years are in the first instance marked by great increment in the sensory-motor-thought functions.

We should have known this law had we stopped to observe the taste and behavior of normal children. They love to run and play and climb and swim; they are eager to collect specimens, to classify them and to interpret them intelligently. They are sense-hungry and muscle-hungry as Hall and others have taught us to believe. They are also thought-hungry, but have taste only for thought that is vitalized by contact with meaningful things. They crave the bread of intelligent contacts with a rich and varied world of objects, and we have given them instead the stones of the mechanics of former training.

We are all, let us say, builders of the pyramid of life. We must start with its deepest foundations. First of all there are the problems of right procreation through which healthy life is to be brought into the world. The schools must accept their share of the responsibility for race culture through right breeding. One must feel profound sympathy with the appeal of Sir Francis Galton for a religion of eugenics, and with his notion concerning the impossibility of improving the human speakers through the present methods of breeding.

Through the school must come the better knowledge of the care and nutrition of tiny infants. During the earliest days and weeks must be realized the proper coordination of the reflexes and instinctive powers and functions that are predetermining elements of character. During the early weeks and months the school must help the homes in organizing in children a body of habits that govern bodily functions and mental attitudes. Through the earliest months and years there should arise a delicate responsiveness to persons along with a sufficient complacency of the child in the absence of others. Then comes in the second and third years the tidal wave of the use of spoken language, and the need of accuracy and grace in its use. Thereafter, comes the kindergarten period of which we have spoken—deliberation of thought mechanism and the emancipation of self through the playful use of the imagination and the release of higher values through the use of symbols. Later in the building of this pyramid should come the furnishing of consciousness with a stock of images which shall predispose the mind toward thoughtfulness and appreciation. In passing

by these boundaries one after another the work of the schools is made easier because of a fund of instinctive tendencies and hereditary predispositions toward right adjustments. At the next stage, however, the beginning of the high school, there is fresh challenge; each new boundary ahead becomes a deadline difficult to cross. For most persons to pass over from thinking in terms of things to thinking in terms of ideas is next to impossible. It is a deadline that the majority of human beings do not cross. The army rating shows that the average mental age of healthy bodies, white Americans who were draftees, is only a shade more than 13 years. This staggering truth being interpreted means that most American men have not experienced a birth from thing-hood to thought-hood. When we understand the periods of child life we shall succeed in bringing a majority of boys and girls safely across this fatal boundary. Again the boundary line between complacent relatively irresponsible boyhood or girlhood and a socially recentered personality that loves and serves is a deadline that most persons never cross. A more difficult deadline still is that which should mark the rebirth of the self into a world of ideal and impersonal values that can be attained only through a sort of Copernician revolution of life until its loves and passions center in a truth or beauty or goodness that are relatively permanent.

Let us change the figure finally and borrow a symbol of the meaning of education from Socrates. When twitted by his friends as to his profession or vocation he replied with his characteristic playfulness, remarking that his job was like that of his mother before him; then went around the merry laughter, because his friends recalled that his mother was a midwife. He maintained his stand and claimed that his task was to bring into full birth the best there was in the souls of the young men of Athens. He was trying to bring it about, he said, that there should not be born in their minds a wind-egg or a still birth. Shall we not say that the school with all its appointments and its attractive personalities as they play about the child is the womb of society in which the child may grow step by step, safely and surely through all the stages of its development? The teacher is the handmaid of nature in realizing the birth and ever fresh rebirth of human personality of higher levels of attainment.

THE CLASSROOM TEACHER AS A DISCOVERER OF THE SPECIAL NEEDS OF CHILDHOOD—ABRIDGED

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The school, in the sense of its education of the individual from the kindergarten through the university, and throughout all its range in the field of specialization, is a solidarity. The improvement and advancement of any special branch of education affects either directly or indirectly every other branch. The idea is essentially the scriptural one that we are "members one of another," the best results of the whole depending upon the soundness and service of each constituent part.

It is a high conception, and accepting it, the classroom teacher must be progressive, a continuous student, in order to cope with the constantly increasing and additional requirements as well as to bring to a realization her vast responsibilities.

It seems particularly fitting then that, at this convention of the National Education Association at which the teachers' responses to America's challenge are under consideration, an opportunity be given to present the phase of the classroom teacher as a discoverer of the special needs of childhood.

It is a source of much satisfaction to note the increasing wholesome, cordial, intelligent spirit of cooperation between parents and teachers which the classroom teachers have helped to promote. No other instrumentality contributes so much to a pupil's success and all-around development as a feeling of confidence, cordiality, and sympathy between parent and teacher. One of the strongest features of our modern school system is the emphasis placed on the necessity of parent and teacher working together for the physical and moral as well as the intellectual development of the child.

The solicitude of our wide awake teachers of kindergarten and first grade classes for the formation of good habits and a proper training of the emotions of those young children has resulted in an intensive study of the so-called "preschool years" of the child.

In endeavoring to find methods that would give greater success to their teaching, experienced teachers of kindergartens and first grades have been giving attention to a study of the child in the home. In some places the outgrowth of this study has resulted in the establishment of schools for the training of the preschool child. Organized in 1917 by the psychological laboratory of the Iowa Child Welfare Research Station the first preschool in the United States was established. Four groups of eighty-five children, from sixteen months to five years, are in attendance. The laboratory for each group has a selected equipment, trained personnel, and an adjustable program. The work consists of story-telling, music, singing or skipping games, clay modelling, coloring and drawing pictures, and work along kindergarten lines, all dependent upon the children's ages and inclinations. It is claimed that the children so trained enter school with greater resourcefulness and stand a better chance of preserving their individuality.

Modern sociology is constantly impressing us with the necessity of conserving the strong as well as protecting the weak. The classroom teacher must never lose sight of her tremendous responsibility in faithful and judicious adherence to this principle. Reports of her observation and recommendation to principals, physicians, and other school officials, on sanitation, ventilation, length of recitation periods, noticeable fatigue of pupils during certain activities have resulted in many corrective measures designed to provide and establish the most favorable conditions possible to secure for the children opportunity for all-round development.

The classroom teacher's plea for greater flexibility in the system of grading and promoting has at last a salutary effect. For years teachers have been focusing attention on the dangers resulting from prolonged retardation. They have been among the first to recognize the morbid effect upon children who are subjected to feelings of failure and consequently discouragement. They have recognized the sanity of placing value upon mastery up to and within the child's limit as well as upon standard or ideal mastery. They have contended that attitude toward duties and effort expended in aiming to secure results should be considered in deciding the pupil's claim for promotion rather than the mere conforming to certain standard requirements. It is not that the classroom teacher is indifferent to results and high attainments, but through his discovery of the needs of the child and through the human quality of his guidance he sees the perspective of the partially developed boy or girl and makes reasonable allowances for limitations to which he has given careful study. The recognition of the fact that what is standard mastery in one child is only partial mastery in another and even ideal mastery in a third has had a marked influence in the provision for a differentiation of courses which is now a feature of almost all city school systems. Closely connected with the adoption of the differentiated program is the growing custom of supplying advice, direction, and guidance in the choice of occupation to which each student will be likely to devote his interest and powers and then to shape his training according to the inclination of his choice.

The solution of a problem to which some classroom teachers in Boston may point with special pride and satisfaction is the perplexing one of providing instruction for hospital children. The story of children absent from school on account of accident and thereby losing a promotion and repeating the year's work is familiar to all. Many attempts were made to provide sufficient instruction during the convalescent period so that these children would escape retardation. Volunteers among the teachers responded cheerfully for the work. One of the difficulties resulted from the fact that the only time in which the volunteer teachers could assist the children (after regular school sessions) was not the part of the day in which the children were best fitted to receive instruction. However, recognizing the urgent need of these children, a committee of teachers conferred with the medical-social department of the Boston City Hospital and with the chairman of the Boston school committee. The result was the appointment of teachers by the Boston school committee who were assigned to hospital classes. The scheme has worked out most satisfactorily. When the child is sufficiently convalescent to receive instruction in school work the hospital teacher communicates with the classroom teacher in regard to the work which will be most essential in order that he may retain his grade. The hospital children are happier in feeling that, although they are handicapped in not being physically able to attend school, they are really keeping in touch with much of the work of their classmates.

There need be no apprehension that these children will be overworked or allowed to study when physically unable. No child receives any form of instruction from the hospital teacher unless he is recommended by the physician for admission to the hospital class. The children who have been available for the teaching periods are almost entirely from the surgical service. The establishment of hospital classes and of definite school instruction to individuals confined temporarily in hospitals breaks down a barrier of tradition, since it provides teaching apart from the classroom. But the teacher's response to the needs of the child recognized no barrier. Instances of broadening the scope of the school system when the needs of childhood demand such departures are by no means rare. St. Louis has been to the forefront in this work by the establishment of a school connected with a convalescent hospital. Special equipment with every modern device to promote the comfort of the sick child may be found here, with a classroom teacher who is adapted for the work. A school specially constructed for the crippled children, also schools for all types of handicapped children may be found there, functioning under the board of education.

The plea of the classroom teacher in his effort to convince parents of the urgency of allowing their children to remain in school after the compulsory school age has been reached, is familiar to all. Illustrations of unusually successful men and women whose opportunity for secondary education was made possible by the persuasive efforts of a certain teacher may be multiplied. They exist in every city in our country.

Compulsory education is everywhere acknowledged as necessary. Insistence upon school attendance for all children has contributed either directly or indirectly to the organization of schools and courses to meet the needs of individual children. It has been found necessary to organize special classes for groups of children. As these opportunities have been provided for the mentally backward, the delinquent, the physically handicapped, there has come to be a greater realization of the needs of differentiation in those who vary less extremely. Progress made in this field of organization has contributed toward eliminating the record of retardation.

Educational surveys have resulted in the establishment of departments of educational research. The measurement of educational achievements through intelligence tests has provided a means by which the classroom teacher may check up her estimate of a pupil's ability. It helps to prevent erroneous estimates. If the results coincide with the teacher's estimate of the child's mastery within his limit, the teacher may be reasonably sure that there has been no error made in her judgment. These tests have helped in classifying the pupils according to abilities. This has led to the recognition and talents of the gifted child and the modern school systems through rapid advancement classes are giving this type of child special attention. Those of inferior intellect are especially provided for through opportunity classes.

The most powerful influence in education is the recognition of the differences that exist among individuals and the belief that these differences must be respected and the programs of education both in their matter and method must be shaped to give each child his chance. The result of this has been the establishment of the junior high school which offers opportunity for exploration and for some degree of specialization. In these schools pupil interest is the keynote of progress for we are educating the child by preparing for a right attitude toward his civic and social relations so that he may fit in his place as a member of society. The knowledge gained by him should be closely related with his future interest. Our country's growth is dependent upon the education of all rather than upon the education of a few.

Much attention is being given, and rightly so, to the physical welfare of the individual, but we must not lose sight of our responsibility for the moral development, too. As teachers, we have been made aware of our responsibility in this matter and we are attempting to meet our share of this responsibility. We have ever been attempting to develop definite concepts of right and wrong, definite high ideals of thought and action. Intelligent, healthy, sturdy, self-supporting, self-controlling patriotic citizens are the need of America today. The nation looks to the public school to supply these. Education of the hand and the mind is receiving constant attention, as is also the care of the physical body. But the education of the heart which is fundamental to the happiness of the individual and to the progress and prosperity of the nation, is now striving for its proper place in the curriculum of our schools.

Another point never to be lost sight of in treating of the teacher's response to the needs of children is the guidance and protection of that class of well disposed but overworked children, whose very expressions are indicative of the absence of a tenderly protected childhood and whose experience in contact with the world gives them a seriousness far beyond their years. They sometimes read newspaper articles or listen to speeches which arouse their antagonism to existing laws and customs. Here the teacher must show strength, sympathy, and tact.

He realizes, to be sure, that the social problems, the solution of which some of these children attempt, are beyond their mental grasp; but he is aware also, that they, and possibly their parents, are easy victims and their minds, without his explanations and corrective influence, would furnish breeding ground for some of the evils which infest our social organism.

The fact that many of these boys, who had chafed and manifested discontent at their interpretation of some of our industrial and immigration regulations, later develop into splendid examples of law abiding citizens is directly traceable to daily contact with teachers of broad sympathy, largeness of humanity who are not only the discoverers of the needs of the different types of children but equally alive to the necessity of providing for these needs.

THE SCHOOLS OF TOMORROW—ABRIDGED

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It is evident that the presentation of this subject might take the form of a prophecy, in which one would undertake to forecast the character and nature of the coming school, or it might assume the aspects of an educational program such as the speaker might prefer. I am inclined to think that most speakers would take the latter course and attempt to present a picture of the schools of tomorrow as they would like to have them, or in line with the popular desires of educational leaders at the present time. I shall take the unusual course of undertaking to indicate what appears to me to be likely to happen, regardless of my own preferences, popular expectations, or current educational thinking.

Let me say frankly, at the outset, that I doubt very much if the experiments which are being worked out so skillfully in some of these schools will determine in their entirety, or in a very large measure, what the schools of tomorrow, speaking generally, will be. History readily indicates that reform and liberal movements usually issue in compromise. It is rare that the conservative or the liberal is able to consummate his desires. What we usually find is a middle ground between the two extremes.

I can not bring myself to the conclusion that the conventional school of today is all wrong in every detail. If one takes the trouble to survey the criticisms that are being made on the schools of today he will find that, apparently, there is nothing satisfactory about them. We find authorities questioning the present procedure at practically all points, and these strictures are inconsistent, conflicting, and self-destructive. The schools of today are criticized by educational authorities with reference to organization, administration, supervision, instruction, objectives, curriculum materials, financing, and so on through the whole catalog of educational particulars. It is asserted that the administration of the schools of today is not only inefficient, but that there is too much of it; that we have not yet developed professional supervision, and that there is too much supervision; that the curriculum needs enlargement with new things, and that it is overloaded and contains everything; that we spend too much money on the schools, and that there is not enough adequately to support them; that the courses of study should be vitalized, and that so much of what goes on in the schools of today is like life that we hardly need school; that formal instruction is undertaken too early in life, and that we need nursery schools; that children are kept in school too long, and that the schools should run all the year around; that education is undemocratic, and that it is adapted for mass instruction; that there shall be equality of opportunity for everybody, and individualized instruction. These are only a few of the criticisms and paradoxes with which we are being regaled from day to day. It is difficult to comprehend how the traditional school could suffer from all of these maladies and defects and at the same time produce

the men and women who have been capable of discovering so many of its weaknesses.

The school of today is a vast improvement on the school of yesterday. There is not the slightest doubt that we have made more progress in the past decade, since the appearance of Dewey's *Schools of Tomorrow* than in any similar period of our educational history. In fact, the trends indicated in that volume have been realized in a very considerable measure throughout the schools generally. We must be alert to prevent some of the tendencies, which were needed and wholesome a decade ago, from going to such extremes that a reaction will overtake the schools of tomorrow. Nor is there any doubt in my mind that the American school has more than kept pace with the schools in other countries. Even the most serene internationalist would hardly contend that any nation has prospered more or enjoys today a more favored position than the United States. I am confident that the splendid position which we occupy today in the family of nations is due more to the success of our experiment in universal free schools and the efficiency of this program than to any other consideration whatsoever. For the best interests of the schools of tomorrow what we need today is a clearer exposition and analysis of the constructive forward steps which we have taken in the eventful years that are just behind us and through which we are passing now.

What I am trying to say is that life is complex and varied and filled with obstacles and difficulties. There is no one so able, so high, so wealthy, or so favored who does not meet difficulties and obstacles and who is not compelled to bow to circumstances which he can not control. The child who is permitted to develop without this realization is going to face life with a severe handicap. There comes to my mind the recollection of a pedagogue who placed two mottoes on the walls of his school: *Nihil sine labore* and "I need thee every hour." Under the latter he hung his ferrule. We may condemn this act, and we may have become wiser than Solomon who, with barbaric inappreciation of modern democracy and freedom, said "He that spareth the rod hateth his son," but we can never contravene the supreme law of natural progress *Nihil sine labore*.

The same principles which govern the pupil in this regard must govern the teacher. If the child can not grow without some restraint, without some difficulties and without some discipline, and without subjecting his will at times to others, neither can the teacher perform his function without these limitations. I am glad to see a larger participation on the part of the teacher in the formulation of the educational program and in the conduct of the school. In organizing materials of instruction, in planning the management of the school, and in many essential ways, the teacher can make a large and needed contribution to educational progress, but I must confess that I see considerable peril lurking in a disposition now quite evident on the part of some teachers to participate in the formulation of the administrative policies of the school. I believe that this tendency is going to increase, but inevitably it will result in reaction, because it is not based upon sound principle or practice. Freedom and responsibility must go hand in hand. Unlimited participation in public affairs by an irre-

sponsible individual may upset the constructive efforts of a thousand intelligent, responsible citizen. By the same token, the teacher who is irresponsible may not only retard and injure an administrative program, but may even wreck it. Responsibility for the administrative program rests squarely upon the school board, whose members are elected or appointed by the people, and upon the administrative officers, who always carry the burden of direct or indirect responsibility. Officials who are charged with the responsibility should be free to discharge their obligations to the public without interference on the part of those who do not share their responsibility. A violation of this principle is essentially detrimental to social progress. Carried to its logical consequences this movement would eventually sovietize our schools.

No trend of education, noted by the Deweys in their volume, was advocated with more emphasis than that which is called motivation, pupil activity, or, what we now call, "learning by doing." Since that time, the project method has been employed generally and successfully in all kinds of subjects. The value of this method is unquestioned and it was essential to bring about a proper balance between practical and theoretical education. The traditional school was far too formal and its objectives centered too largely in abstract thinking. I believe that this tremendous movement, originating with Froebel and Pestalozzi, is susceptible of an even richer application in the schools of tomorrow. I have been particularly enthusiastic about all forms of education which depend upon action, and have stressed as best I could the need of healthful development of the body, together with acquisition of skill with the hands. When these purposes can be outlined with the teaching of abstract subjects, we have modern education at its best.

To attempt to teach everything by doing would amount, in its last analysis, to a denial of the need or existence of abstract or reflective thinking. Simple problems in numbering and arithmetic can well be taught through sensation by employment of the project method and pupil activity, but to undertake to teach a very considerable portion of mathematics in this way would be clumsy and eventually impossible. After all, mathematics is an abstract science. The concepts of mathematics are not perceptible through the senses. A mathematical point is defined as having no length, breadth or thickness. For the purpose of sensation we employ something which has all three. In a like manner, a line, a circle, and other mathematical entities can not be truly presented to sensation. If the geometrical proposition, the sum of the angles of a triangle is equal to 180 degrees, had to be taught by doing or through sensation, the pupil would have to try every possible form of triangle to discover the truth of this proposition through experience. This would be impossible, as the number of triangles is infinite.

I need not go further. The principle of learning through doing, when applied completely to the process of learning, is a *reductio ad absurdum*. If we should succeed in completely vitalizing the curriculum and making school children live naturally the school would become a useless expense. Let life take the place of the school and let us avoid the useless multipli-

cation of buildings, equipment, and teachers. This objective of education could be accomplished by letting the children live under observation. With it the *raison d'être* for the school perishes.

One other comment on the schools of tomorrow and I am done. It has often been suggested that our system of grades, rewards, promotions and certificates is a pernicious device and that these things should be abandoned. Boys and girls should learn to apprise knowledge for the sake of knowledge and the happiness that it affords. No one should be motivated by a selfish or sinister lure. This is a form of idealism which I confess appeals strongly to me, but as often as I turn my attention to human nature I am forced back into the troughs of realism. I am unable to believe that boys and girls, in general, could be stimulated as effectively without these devices. True, there are exceptional children who hunger and thirst after knowledge, but unfortunately as yet they do not compose the vast majority. When we contemplate American women who marry titles instead of men, the annual conferring of honorary degrees, and the general enthusiasm which many display in the pursuit of honors, offices, decorations, and all manner of things, we are forced to conclude that a great many grown ups have not yet been educated to the point of living merely for the sake of life. How then can we expect children to learn merely for the sake of learning? A system of stimulating learning without these conventional rewards may some day be discovered but that time will only come when human nature has changed. Under present conditions this proposal would be like a perpetual motion machine of education. It is beautiful, it is ideal, it looks fine on paper, but I am afraid it will not work. Kipling contemplated that as a "far-off divine event" but not for tomorrow when he wrote:

When Earth's last picture is painted, and the
tubes are twisted and dried,
When the eldest colors have faded, and the
youngest critic has died,
We shall rest, and, faith, we shall need it—lie
down for an æon or two,
Till the Master of All Good Workmen shall set us
to work anew!

And those who were good shall be happy; they
shall sit in a golden chair;
They shall splash at a ten-league canvas with
brushes of comets' hair;
They shall find real saints to draw from—Mag'l-
lene, Peter, and Paul;
They shall work for an age at a sitting and never
be tired at all!

And only the Master shall praise us, and only
the Master shall blame;
And no one shall work for money, and no one
shall work for fame;
But each for the joy of the working, and each,
in his separate star,
Shall draw the Thing as he sees It for the God of
Things as They Are!

I HEAR THE CHILDREN SINGING

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There are three highly important suggestions in the statement, "I hear the children singing."

The keystone in the arch is *children*.

The arch rests on one side on *hearing* children.

The other side of it rests on the children *singing*.

All future industrial and commercial, social and civic, educational and religious functioning in America will rest upon children in school this year and upon those who will be in school for the next twelve years.

Those in school now and those who will be in school in the next twelve years will be active men and women from eighteen to forty-two years of age in 1950. With those who are in school today and those who are to be in school in the next twelve years will be the fate for good or ill, for hope or fear, for success or failure, for virtue or vice in America, for they will swing along and sweep along as the controlling factor in city and county, in state and nation. They will largely determine what will be done, when it will be done, and how it will be done.

And yet, strange to say, as children they receive slight attention when any issue is raised between the importance of children and of grown-ups. A man prominent enough to have won a nomination as a candidate for the governorship in one of our large states in 1926 publishes an appeal for votes on the ground that he will ignore the importance of school children in order to save the taxes of old folks. Among other great financial achievements for grown-ups he has promised to make public school children use school books that will cost not more than four cents each. If parents want good books for their children, books that will cost more than four cents, they can send them to private schools, but four-cent books will be good enough for public school children, when bought out of tax money. This seems too absurd to be possible, but it is not one whit more ridiculous than for men and women—not in insane asylums—to vote against the Child Labor Amendment on the ground that children should not have any school books at all, or be in school, if grown-ups want the children in mills and factories in order to increase dividends or work in beet fields to enhance profits. Nor is it any more absurd to insist that a four-cent school book is good enough for a public school child in order to save the taxes of millionaires and other folks than it is to oppose a Federal Department of Education with a Secretary in the Cabinet on the ground that such a Department and such a Cabinet Secretary may upset the political plans, financial schemes, or institutional ambitions of some grown-ups in some one or more of the forty-eight states in the union. No one opposes child labor laws or a Department of Education in order to provide better education for children, but purely and selfishly because it interferes with plans and interests of grown-ups.

Why mortgage the efficiency, the intelligence, the comfort, the usefulness of the manhood and womanhood of America in 1950 for a puttering divi-

dend in taxes, in political power or in institutional influence of grown-ups today?

With infant damnation in theology, past or present, we have naught to do, but we do protest against any footprints thereof in education. It is always in evidence when we measure or test children by what they don't know that adults know rather than by what they know that they should know. Thomas A. Edison won world fame by knowing what no one else knew, by doing what no one else could do, but when he slopped over into pedagogy and insisted that other people should be tested by what they did not know, by what they could not do, and asserted that that principle should dominate the schools, he adopted the pedagogical theology of infant damnation.

"I hear the children singing." It has been of no avail that children had music or art, genius or science in their soul, for no educator would hear the sound thereof in children. There is no sound unless there is an ear to hear. Thunder is noiseless unless its waves strike some ear. Within the last twelve months an educator, by the use of large appropriations by a benevolent foundation, has investigated ten thousand of the ten million elementary school children of America, and knows what some school people have been saying for a third of a century, that while four out of five children can wisely "drill" on any regulation scheme of education, about one in five should not be harnessed with an ox to a plow. There are Percheron minds that should be trained to pull heavy loads and thoroughbreds that should be trained in speed.

While there is no appreciable relation between the "horsepower" of a Percheron and of a thoroughbred the world estimates all its power by "horsepower," meaning neither Percheron nor thoroughbred, but the ordinary horse on farm or track. A clever story is going the rounds in the funny columns of the press. A lad saw a Percheron pulling a vast load, and asked his father how many horsepower the Percheron had. Educators have refused to credit any child with any power except the traditional "drill" power in things that he did not want to know, did not want to do. They have hitched a thoroughbred with a Percheron and credited the thoroughbred with being a moron in team work, while specialists in speed have mated a Percheron with a thoroughbred and rated the Percheron as a moron in speed.

"I hear the children singing." This carries us forward to the glowing suggestion, "Suffer little children to come unto Me and forbid them not, for of such is the Kingdom of Heaven." Isn't it strange that theological infant damnation survived for two thousand years after it was clearly said that Heaven, and not the other place, was the natural abode of children?

Music alone takes rhythm, melody, and harmony into the school. It alone gives the thrill that makes minds throb and hearts glow. Is there

any public school course of study that provides, more than fifteen minutes a day, the thrill of rhythm, melody, and harmony? Is there any public school that does not require at least half of the day on drill that is useless and worse than useless for one fifth of the children? Experts on the diamond say that no man has ever learned to be an artist at the bat or behind the bat, at skilful pitching or artistic base guarding who did not love to practice his specialty when a boy. The national league managers select their talent at sandlot games and from school leagues.

It is universally known that a musician must have musical freedom as a child. Not to hear the children singing, not to free them from tedious drill on things worse than useless for them, not inspiring practice with voice and ear, is one of the great pedagogical crimes. To thrill the soul of a child with high art, to make a school throb with some master emotion will be remembered for life. A school boy leader of a chorus, an orchestra or a band has an influence far above traditional scholarship. A brilliant soloist, vocal or instrumental, stirs the pride of a whole community as well as of the school. An artistic accompanist makes every schoolmate's whole being tingle with rhythm, melody, and harmony.

A race horse in his first colt's year is stabled at a race track where he hears the winning horses calling to one another, is always seeing the horses racing. Before the pure-bred racing colt ever has a boy on his back he gets all the excitement of the race, and every muscle quivers with aspiration for the track. When will the schools give the same thrill of aspiration and inspiration to boys and girls for high intellectual achievement? When will we hear the soul of children throbbing with the joy of achievement?

In the summer of 1926 Richard C. Cabot of Boston and Clarence Gamble of Philadelphia demonstrated the achievement of medical science in their creation of an instrument that will hear every heart beat and every living movement, and record it on a cylinder as a record so that there can be in every hospital in the world, yes, in every physician's office, ready for hearing at a moment's notice, the action of heart and lungs in every serious irregularity. When will educators hear the children singing, yes, hear the rhythm, melody, and harmony of their inmost beings instead of thinking first, last, and all the time of "subject-method," of the artistic aspiration and inspiration instead of drill in technic? When a child wants the result of technic he will practice indefinitely for it, but when he cares nothing for it he will never get it through forced drilling. The test of musical talent is hearing one practice for perfection. There is no talent lurking in the soul of one who has to be driven to a task. Hear the children! Let them lead the teacher instead of being driven by the teacher. Hear ye the children, for of them is the Kingdom of Heaven.

THE CHILD'S BIRTHRIGHT IN ART

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In Susan Ertz's last book *After Noon* her hero has this to say about art in England:

All this to-do that's made about art is out of all proportion to its value. It is made, as a rule, by people who are merely sentimental hangers on. The very word art moves them in some sickly way. I would like all things that are for daily use made pleasant to handle and to look upon, and let art exist in that way, domesticated, like the horse. It's ludicrous and paradoxical to have this craze for art flourishing in a world that's as full of sordid ugliness as this is. Ugly streets, ugly houses, ugly towns, ugly people, ugly morals. Art, under such conditions, is a mere growth, an excrescence. It might almost be called a disease. It's as unhealthy as the flush on the cheek of a consumptive. I know towns that are the very abomination of sordid hideousness, and yet possess deserted art galleries full of treasures. It makes me think of a dirty slut wearing diamonds. Art, at the present moment, is merely the kept woman of the capitalist class.

If this be true for England it is more pitifully true for the United States. What are we going to do about it? The answer is "educate." The ills in a democracy may not all be curable through education, but they can be minimized, alleviated, transmuted into something less hampering to progress.

The education that will banish ugliness must begin with nature study. Nature study freed the Greeks from Egyptian conventionalities; gave to Rome her portrait busts; enabled the Italians to throw off the shackles of Byzantine tradition; made Claude and Turner, Millet and Monet the torch bearers in landscape painting. Nature study clears the eye, reveals the elements of beauty, fires the imagination. Therefore all who believe in the coming of the Crowning Race of Tennyson should cooperate in every effort to give to all children the privilege of having fundamental experiences with Nature.

All children ought to be familiar with the open country. They should know the joy of playing in healthful mud, of paddling in clean water, of hearing the rooster call up the sun, and birds sing praises to God for the new day.

They should have the vision of pure skies enriched at dawn and sunset with unspeakable glory; of dew drenched mornings flashing with priceless gems; of grain fields and woodlands yielding to the feet of the wind; of the vast night sky "all throbbing and panting with stars."

They should feel the joy of seed time and harvest, of dazzling summer noons, and of creaking, glittering winter nights. They should live with flowers and butterflies, with the wild things that have made possible the world of fable.

They should experience the thrill of going barefoot, of being out in the rain without umbrellas and rubber coats and buckled overshoes; of

riding a white birch, of sliding down pine boughs, of climbing ledges and tall trees, of diving head first into a transparent pool.

They ought to know the smell of wet earth, of new mown hay; of the blossoming wild grape and eglantine, of an apple orchard in May and of a pine forest in July; of the crushed leaves of wax myrtle, sweet fern, mint and fir; of the breath of cattle and of fog blown inland from the sea.

They should hear the answer the trees make to the rain and to the wind; the sound of rippling and falling water, the muffled roar of the sea in a storm, and its lisping and laughing and clapping of hands in a stiff breeze. They should know the sound of bees in a plum tree in May, of frogs in a bog in April, of grasshoppers along the roadsides in June, of crickets out in the dark in September. They should hear a leafless ash hum, a pine tree sigh, old trees groan in the forest, and the floating ice in a brook making its incomparable music beneath the frozen crystal roof of some flooded glade.

They should have a chance to chase butterflies, to catch fish, to ride on a load of hay, to camp out, to cook over an open fire, to tramp through new country and to sleep under the open sky. They should have the fun of driving a horse, paddling a canoe, and sailing a boat, and of discovering that nature will honor the humblest seed they plant.

Things that children can do in cities are not to be compared with such country activities. Out of the country and its experiences has come and always will come the most stimulating and healthful art of the world. One can not appreciate and enjoy to the full nature books, novels, histories, poems, pictures, or even musical compositions, who has not had in his youth the blessed contact with that world upon the face of which our cities appear as stains that should be washed away.

I do not forget what cities have done for us, and always must do; I do not forget that it is under the type of a city that the glories of the heavenly world are described to us. But I like to remember that that city is fifteen hundred miles square, according to the measuring of the angel, and that within its walls, therefore, there is plenty of room for a river of life as large as the Mississippi, and for gardens the size of whole states on either side, where the trees that yield their fruits every month have room enough to be full grown!

One can get all the best a city has to yield by visiting it, but one can not reap all the harvests of the country except by living there and especially by living there in childhood. And I feel somehow that such a life in the country is the birthright of every child. There is truth in Cowper's statement that God made the country and man made the town.

I believe that every child has a right to see the country—the house his Heavenly Father made for him—unobstructed by brick walls, unspoiled by filth and undimmed by smoke. And one of these days, somehow, all children born into the world will be given a chance to enjoy to the full their inspiring patrimony. Perhaps in the golden future they may be required by law to serve the commonwealth by living in the country a few

of their childhood years for their normal development, as later they may be required to live for a time in Government Training Camps in preparation for national and international public service.

Meanwhile let us develop as rapidly as possible an educational system that will make use of the busses of the department of education, not to bring suburban children into city schools every day, but to carry city children out into the country at least every other day, where, upon selected farms or reservations they may come to know the great inexhaustible reservoir of suggestion for all forms of art.

But in addition to nature at first hand—divine art, as Plato called it—the children have a right to orderly experience with human art.

We have made a good beginning with our nursery rhymes and fairy stories, with our folk songs and national dances. The teachers of music should be encouraged to continue the good work they have begun by familiarizing the children with the best music throughout their school life, following a carefully graded sequence from the *Caissons Rolling Along* to the *Hallelujah Chorus* of the *Messiah*, and from the *Largo* to the *Fifth Symphony* of *Beethoven*.

The teachers of reading are following a similar plan, and must develop it still further. The insignificant selections with which our school readers used to be filled—selections good only to analyze and parse—must make room for the great literature of the world, again carefully graded to meet the growing ability to apprehend and appreciate. The public libraries have been powerful allies in this field. Their graded lists for reading have been of incalculable value to public school pupils. It is probable that the lists might in some cases be improved through conferences with the best teachers of language and literature. The great classics, the *Iliad*, the *Odyssey* of Homer, the *Edipus* of Sophocles, the *Aeneid* of Virgil, some of the orations of Demosthenes, the poems of Theocritus, the *Lives of Plutarch*, and portions of some of the dialogues of Plato should be known, in English translation by every high school boy and girl. They ought also to know some of the calm philosophy of Marcus Aurelius, some of the reminiscent and aspiring passages in St. Augustine's confessions, some of the thrilling visions in Dante's great poem, that "mediæval miracle in song," as Longfellow called it. The great ballads of the Middle Ages, Sir Thomas Mallory's masterpieces, and the Shakespearian dramas, should have a chance with the eager adolescent mind, for which the best is none too good.

History vitalized by means of works of literary Art—the great historical novels—will be thrilling and memorable. Who can forget such brilliant moving pictures as those presented by *The Bride of The Nile*, *Salambo*, *Ben Hur*, *Quo Vadis*, *The Talisman*, *The Cloister and the Hearth*, *The Last of the Barons*, *St. George and St. Michael*, *Tale of Two Cities*, or the *Soul of Anne Rutledge*—to mention only a few almost at random!

What an opportunity the teachers on manual arts have missed! They have ignored the thrilling history of craft. They have displayed no master-

pieces, hence their work has been mechanical rather than cultural. Few manual training men ever introduced their pupils to Imhotep, pioneer architect of pyramids, to Bezaleel, who cast the great bronze columns in the clay pits of the Jordan; to Duri, master potter of Athens; to Demetrius, famous craftsman of Ephesus; to Authemius of Tralles, who designed the most wonderful church in the world; Master Gerard, cathedral builder; Hans Sachs, shoemaker; Stradavarius, violin maker; Quenten Mateys, blacksmith; Peter Vischer, bronze caster; Veit Stoss, wood carver; Benvenuto Cellini, jeweler; Bould, Chippendale, Adam, Hepplewhite, and Sheraton, furniture makers; Stevenson, Robeling, bridge builders; Gutenberg, Faust, Caxton, Plantin, printers; Paul Revere, silversmith; William Morris, master craftsman; Lehmann, Quarre, Laleque, Louis Tiffany, glassmakers; Thomas A. Edison, American inventor. Few manual training students ever heard from their teachers of such masterpieces of handicraft as the Shield of Achilles, and the Vaphio Cup, the Portland Vase, the Chariot of the Vatican, the Hildesheim Treasure, the Bayeux Tapestry, the Book of Kells, the Schoener, Brunen of Nuremberg, or the Strasbourg Clock. Children need nourishing food, not sawdust and shavings.

In the Cleveland School of Art we require all our pupils to make an illustrated note book, the table of contents being given to them at the beginning of their freshman year. Here it is:

Architecture

The Great Pyramids
Karnak
Palace of Sargon
Parthenon
Colosseum
Santa Sophia
St. Mark's (Venice)
A Gothic Cathedral: Milan, Paris, Chartres, Amiens, Rheims, York, Durham, Lincoln, Ely, Winchester
A Renaissance Church: St. Peter's, St. Paul's, The Pantheon, Paris
A Colonial Building: Independence Hall, Faneuil Hall, Old Stone House
A Sky Scraper: Woolworth Building, Tribune Building, Metropolitan Tower, American Radiator Building
An American Home: Contemporary Architecture

Sculpture

The Sphinx
The Wooden Schoolmaster
A Lady of the Acropolis
Victory of Samothrace
Three Fates of the Parthenon
Hermes of Olympia
Apollo Belvedere
Venus of Milo
Loacoon
Colleoni, by Verocchio
Moses, by Michelangelo
Wooden Madonna, of Nuremberg
Joan of Arc, by Fremiet
Houdon's Washington
St. Gauden's Farragut
Rodin's Hand of God
French's Death of the Sculptor

Representation

The Book of the Dead
The Aldrobrandini Marriage
Victory of Alexander
A Fayum Portrait
A Mosaic Decoration from Ravenna

Cimabue's Madonna (carried in procession)
Fra Angelico's Coronation of Virgin
Giotto's Mourning over the Dead Christ
Masaccio's Peter Baptizing

Botticelli's Allegory of Spring	Holbein's Portrait of a Man (Munich)
Da Vinci's Mona Lisa	A Lenbach Portrait
Michelangelo's Creation of Man	Hoffmann's Christ and the Rich Young Ruler
Raphael's Sistine Madonna	Honkacsy's Christ before Pilate
Giorgione's Concert	Hogarth's The Rake's Progress
Titian's Assumption	Reynolds' Age of Innocence
Vecchio's St. Barbara	West's Death of General Wolfe
Tintoretto's Ariadne and Bacchus	Turner's Ulysses Deriding Polyphemus
Veronese's Marriage of Cana	Landseer's Waiting for his Mistress
Corregio's Marriage of St. Catherine	Holman Hunt's Triumph of Innocents
Reni's Aurora	Rosetti's Annunciation
Ruben's Descent from the Cross	Burne-Jones' Star of Bethlehem
Claude Lorraine's Landing of Cleopatra	Watt's Mammon
Watteau's Embarkation for Cythera	Stuart's Washington (unfinished)
David's Rape of the Sabines	Inness' Peace and Plenty
Delacroix's Barque of Dante	Hunt's The Bathers
Corot's Dance of the Nymphs	Vedder's The Cup of Death
Millet's The Gleaners	Whistler's Portrait of his Mother
Chavannes' Sacred Grove—Sorbonne	Abbey's The Round Table of King Arthur
Dore's Illustrations Dante's Inferno	Homer's Fog Warning
A Monet Landscape	Abbott Thayer's Caritas
Velasquez's Portrait of Innocent X	Metcalf's May Night
Murillo's St. Anthony and Infant Jesus	Alexander's Pot of Basil
Van Dyck's Adoration of the Lamb	Duveneck's Whistling Boy
Van Dyck's Children of Charles I.	Sargent's The Frieze of the Prophets
Rembrandt's Night Watch	
A Van der Meer of Delft Interior	
Durer's Four Pillars of the Church	

But should such a list be reserved for Art Schools? Should it not be the basis for instruction in high schools? It is a catalog of a part of our vast wealth in the realm of the arts, laid up by the master minds of the past, for us all to enjoy. It is the heritage of the race. All should participate.

This great National Education Association should use every means it can command to bring to all the children of the United States the best the world has to offer for their instruction, their enrichment, their enjoyment and their inspiration, that they may help in the forward movement of the human spirit towards its shining goal. Every one of us should know by heart Emerson's poem "Culture" as our ever present guide.

Can rules or tutors educate
 The semi-god whom we await?
 He must be musical,
 Tremulous, impressional,
 Alive to gentle influence
 Of landscape and of sky,
 And tender to the spirit touch
 Of man's or maiden's eye;
 But to his native center fast,
 Shall into future fuse the past,
 And the worlds flowing fates
 In his own mold recast.

Reports of Committees

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON THE PROBLEM OF RETIREMENT ALLOWANCES—SUMMARY¹

E. RUTH PYRTLE, PRINCIPAL, MCKINLEY SCHOOL, LINCOLN, NEBRASKA
CHAIRMAN

The 1926 report of the Committee on the Problem of Retirement Allowances of the National Education Association included these eleven sections:

1. A Critical Review of the Fundamental Principles of a Retirement System.
2. Why Every State Should Enact a Sound Teacher Retirement Law.
3. The Teacher's Interest in Retirement Legislation.
4. State and Local Retirement Systems Now in Effect.
5. Where to Write Concerning Details of State and Local Retirement Systems.
6. Roll Call by States as to Plans Affecting Retirement Legislation.
7. Tabulation of Main Provisions of Eleven Teacher Retirement Systems.
8. Income and Outgo for Representative State Teacher Retirement Systems.
9. Controversial Issues in the Field of Retirement Legislation.
10. The Text of a State Teacher Retirement Law with Comments and Explanations.
11. Selected Annotated Bibliography.

The following is a summary of five sections of the report:

A critical review of the fundamental principles of a teachers' retirement system—Eleven fundamental principles were set forth in the 1924 Report of the Committee of One Hundred of the National Education Association on the Problem of Retirement Allowances. These principles were widely circulated, intensively studied, and critically reviewed by four groups of educators. These eleven fundamental principles are listed below, together with a statement as to the acceptability of each principle by the educators who reviewed them.

Fundamental Principles of a Sound Retirement System	Percent of People Questioned Who Accepted Each Principle
Beginners to be exempt.....	54
Deposits returned in case of early retirement.....	72
Disability provided for.....	94
Guaranties to both teachers and public.....	95
Death benefits included.....	83
Individual accounts kept.....	92
Rights under previous annuity systems safeguarded.....	95
Credit for past service allowed.....	95
Costs shared by teachers and public.....	95
Service and deposits concurrent.....	95
Amount of deposits fixed.....	96

The complete report is published in Vol. IV, No. 3, Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, *Efficient Teaching and Retirement Legislation*.

Arguments for and against the above principles as well as suggested modifications are included in the Report.

Why every state should enact a sound retirement law—These are the arguments set forth in the 1926 Report:

1. A sound teacher retirement law protects school children from teachers rendered incompetent by advanced age because:

- (a) It sets up a plan whereby every teacher upon attaining old age and infirmity will have had some provision made for his retirement.
- (b) It frees school boards from the obligation of continuing to employ teachers formerly satisfactory, but who are now rendered incompetent by old age.
- (c) It removes the necessity for teachers to continue in service after their effectiveness has been seriously reduced by advanced age, or other disability.

2. A sound teacher retirement law tends to attract capable young people into the teaching profession because:

- (a) It partly compensates for the lower remuneration that teaching offers during active service.
- (b) It gives a better guarantee of promotion within the profession.
- (c) It increases the dignity of the teaching profession by keeping its ranks free of those incapacitated by old age.

3. A sound teacher retirement system tends to keep capable teachers in the classroom because:

- (a) It makes it unnecessary for capable people to seek other employment than teaching in order to provide for their old age.
- (b) It makes each year of teaching service a step toward independence in old age.

4. A sound teacher retirement system increases the efficiency of the teacher in the classroom because:

- (a) It lengthens the period of teaching efficiency by relieving the teacher's mind of the fear of a destitute old age.
- (b) It makes it possible for a teacher to invest in study, training, and travel, without endangering the provision made for his later years.
- (c) It improves the morale of a teaching force by keeping open the paths of promotion.
- (d) It increases the child's respect for the teacher and thereby makes his work more effective.

5. A sound teacher retirement system in the long run means a substantial saving to the general public because:

- (a) It makes possible the replacement of superannuated teachers, who receive the maximum salaries, by younger teachers who begin at a smaller salary.
- (b) It protects the public from the waste of an expensive school plant manned by a superannuated teacher.
- (c) It guarantees the public a definite and valuable return for its share of the cost.

- (d) It prevents the enactment of ill-considered and costly "pension" systems.
- (e) Its cost to the general public is small when compared with the benefits received.

6. The adoption of a sound teacher retirement system is in accord with the best thought of the day because:

- (a) Private industry has already recognized retirement plans as essential to good business.
- (b) A retirement plan has already been put in effect in all important public services.
- (c) The public in general contributes billions of dollars each year for the support of insurance companies that offer protection for the future.

The teacher's interest in retirement legislation—These eight statements, together with facts which substantiate them are made relative to the teacher's interest in retirement legislation:

1. The form of teacher retirement legislation which promises most in benefits to the public also promises in benefits to the teacher.
2. The support of sound teacher retirement legislation on the part of all teachers is a professional duty.
3. Every teacher has a direct personal interest in the enactment of sound retirement legislation.
4. Sound teacher retirement legislation is based upon sound business principles, which may be freely accepted by all teachers without loss of self-respect.
5. A teacher retirement system exercises an important influence upon advancement and promotion within the profession.
6. Sound retirement legislation should be based only upon expert advice and technical data.
7. The enactment of sound legislation must be preceded by and be based upon a proper education of both the teaching profession and the public.
8. The enactment of sound legislation must be based upon united effort on the part of the teaching profession.

State and local retirement systems now in effect—The extent of teacher retirement legislation throughout the United States is shown by the following tabulations:

Statewide teacher retirement laws are in effect in: Arizona, California, Connecticut, District of Columbia, Illinois, Indiana, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Montana, Nevada, New Jersey, New York, North Dakota, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Vermont, Virginia, Wisconsin.

In the states just mentioned, the following cities and counties have local teacher retirement systems independent of the state systems: San Francisco, Calif.; New Haven, Conn.; Chicago, Ill.; Peoria, Ill.; Terre Haute, Ind.; Indianapolis, Ind.; Allegany County, Md.; Baltimore County, Md.; Boston, Mass.; Minneapolis, Minn.; Duluth, Minn.; St. Paul, Minn.; New York City, N. Y.; Bristol, R. I.; Newport, R. I.; Providence, R. I.; Milwaukee, Wis.

State teacher retirement laws affecting certain cities are in effect in the following states: Cities operating retirement systems under such state laws are: Colorado—Canon City, Colorado Springs, Denver, Greeley, Pueblo; Iowa—Des Moines; Kansas—Topeka, Atchison, Parsons; Kentucky—Lexington, Louisville, Newport; Louisiana—New Orleans; Michigan—Detroit; Nebraska—Omaha; Oregon—Portland; Utah—Salt Lake City; Washington—Bellingham, Everett, Seattle, Spokane, Tacoma; West Virginia—Parkersburg, Wheeling.

Controversial issues in the field of teacher retirement legislation—These are the issues discussed under this section:

1. What Governmental Unit Can Best Administer a Teacher Retirement System?
2. Who Shall Be Members of a Teacher Retirement System?
3. What Factors Determine the Amount of the Teachers' Contributions to a Retirement Fund?
4. By What Method May Money Be Secured to Provide for the Deficiency in the Retirement Fund When Credit Is Given Teachers for Past Service Where No Retirement System Has Existed?
5. How Shall Teaching Service Performed in Another State Be Evaluated?

REPORT OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE ON HEALTH PROBLEMS IN EDUCATION

THOMAS D. WOOD, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK CITY, CHAIRMAN

The Committee on Health Problems in Education was created as a Committee of the National Council of Education at the meeting in San Francisco, in 1911, at the suggestion and request of the American Medical Association, which was in session at the same time in Los Angeles.

During the fifteen years since the Committee was first appointed the cooperation of a corresponding Committee on Health Problems of the American Medical Association has been continuous and very satisfactory. The Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education has come to be considered quite naturally and logically as the name of these two co-operating committees.

At the meeting of the National Education Association in Des Moines, in July, 1921, the Committee on Health Problems in Education of the National Council of Education was formally adopted as a committee of the National Education Association. This Joint Health Committee has during these fifteen years issued the following reports:

1. *Country Schoolhouses*, prepared by Fletcher B. Dresslar, a member of our Committee. This report was printed and distributed in 1912 by the U. S. Bureau of Education. Unfortunately this bulletin is out of print.

The Committee bulletins and reports still being distributed in the original or repeated editions include the following:

2. *Minimum Health Requirements for Rural Schools*. Three editions of 800,000 copies of this report have been distributed. Evidence from many sources shows that this report has exerted a marked influence in the improvement in rural school sanitation in the United States during the last ten years. Several states have adopted this report as a standard for rural schools.

3. *Health Essentials for Rural School Children* was printed in 50,000 copies. A second revised edition is now being distributed. Most of the copies of this report have been used as supplementary texts on health in the

training of rural school teachers in the normal schools, and as practical hand books by rural school teachers and supervisors.

4. *The Health Chart Report*. The first edition of 10,000 copies of the illustrated Health Chart pamphlet was soon exhausted and a second edition is now being distributed.

This pamphlet not only serves to illustrate and explain the health charts, but is being extensively used for health instruction in both city and country schools, and also as a guide in making health posters and scrap books.

5. *The Health Chart Set* includes 58 charts, each 22 x 28 inches. The second edition of the Health Charts has been practically exhausted, and plans are now being made to reprint the charts.

6. *The Teacher's Part in Social Hygiene* was published in 1921 with the cooperation of the American Social Hygiene Association, and this cooperating Association presented the Joint Health Committee with 5000 copies of this valuable bulletin. The first printing of this bulletin has been exhausted, and a second printing of 5000 copies has just been made available. This report contains a very carefully selected bibliography in social hygiene, and has supplied, and provides a valuable bulletin for teachers. Copies of this valuable report are available for free distribution.

7. *Health Improvement in Rural Schools*, published in 1922, furnishes many descriptions of outstanding work that has been done by progressive rural schools in the field of health.

8. *Health Service in City Schools of the United States* is the report of a survey conducted by the Joint Health Committee in 1922, of the health work which is being done in the city school systems of this country. The report represents the tabulation of valuable information regarding current accomplishments in the field of health service received from 340 city school superintendents.

9. *Daylight in the Schoolroom* is the title of a valuable report on school lighting which was prepared in 1921 by a subcommittee under the chairmanship of Dr. Edward Jackson, eminent ophthalmologist of Denver and a member of our Joint Committee. This report has been printed in several scientific and educational magazines, and represents a very admirable forward looking plan for the better use of daylight in school rooms.

10. *Health Education, a Program for Public Schools and Teacher-Training Institutions*. A report of 160 pages is the most important bulletin which has been prepared by the Joint Health Committee. This report was prepared with the constructive cooperation of a technical committee of twenty-seven experts, and has proven to be, as recognized by many specialists in the field of health education, the most authoritative and helpful publication ever issued in this field. Over 15,000 copies of this report have been sold and distributed, and the demand for it continues very steadily.

11. *Conserving the Sight of School Children* is the first report in a series planned to furnish standards of health norms and health defects in school

children. This report of 50 pages is based upon returns from questionnaires sent to 200 eminent ophthalmologists and has been prepared through the cooperation of the National Committee for the Prevention of Blindness with our Joint Health Committee.

This is the first of eight reports which the Joint Committee hopes and plans to complete as a series in that special and much needed field.

12. *Ventilation of School Buildings* is a short report which has been prepared by a sub-committee of which the chairman is Mary E. Murphy, Director of the Eliabeth McCormick Memorial Fund, in Chicago. This Fund also provided, without expense to our Committee, 2500 copies of this report on school ventilation.

The last two reports mentioned were distributed at the meeting of the National Education Association in 1925, at Indianapolis.

The following studies and reports are included within the present program of the Joint Health Committee:

a. A report on the Conservation of Teeth in School Children. This is being prepared through the cooperation, with our Joint Health Committee, of the American Dental Association. Already nearly a thousand questionnaires have been sent out to a selected list of dentists through the United States, and the work on this report is going forward as fast as time and the available resources will permit.

b. A report on Conserving the Hearing of School Children, which is being prepared through the cooperation, with our Health Committee of the American Federation of Organizations for the Hard of Hearing.

It is expected that both of these reports will be completed and made available within the coming year.

c. An enlarged and continuing Subcommittee on Ventilation of Schools is being organized to proceed with the campaign of education needed to promote the best ideas and standards regarding modern school ventilation.

d. A study of, and preparation of a report upon, factors affecting posture in school children.

e. A study of, and preparation of a report upon, the health of the preschool child.

f. A study of, and preparation of a report upon the health aspects of games, athletics, and recreational activities of school children.

g. A study of, and preparation of a report upon, mental hygiene, particularly as related to all children in the schools.

h. The preparation of a report providing standards for the periodic health examination of school children.

It is of interest and importance for the members of the Representative Assembly of the National Education Association, and teachers in general, to learn that the reports of the Joint Health Committee are now being distributed from the headquarters of the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, Washington, D. C. It is a cause of much gratification to our Committee that our reports will in the future be distributed from the National Education Association offices.

Many important health problems in education still need careful investigation and call for reports which may be helpful to general and special workers in the educational field. These specific problems, proposed each year by the members of the Joint Health Committee, and by others to

them, seem actually to increase in number as the work of the Committee proceeds.

Constructive cooperation between organizations and committees is a prominent part of the policy of our Joint Health Committee. Through each year of the fifteen years of the life of our Committee, the appropriation of the National Education Association has been duplicated by equal amounts given by the American Medical Association. In addition to this cooperation and actual money contribution by the Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund, The American Social Hygiene Association, The National Committee for the Prevention of Blindness, and other organizations and individuals, have contributed altogether as much technical and financial support for the work of our Committee as has been made available by the generous appropriations of the National Education Association.

The sale of the Health Committee reports by the National Education Association in Washington now provides a substantial source of revenue to the National Education Association.

To continue the work of the Joint Health Committee with the interest and cooperation of the American Medical Association, and other organizations, it is hoped that the Committee may receive an appropriation which will make possible the continuation of the Committee's work.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON INTERNATIONAL RELATIONSHIPS

WILLIAM F. RUSSELL, INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE, TEACHERS COLLEGE,
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK CITY, CHAIRMAN

The first full meeting of the delegation was not held until the morning of the opening session in Edinburgh. The announcement of the names of the official delegates had come at the time of the winter meeting in Cincinnati, and at that time it was possible only to assemble seven for a preliminary session. The chairman tried to compensate for this lack of previous preparation by sending all delegates as well as other members of the National Education Association who were planning to go to Scotland a series of mimeographed bulletins giving items of general interest, information, and the like.

The report of the work of your delegation will be considered under three heads, (1) Composition of the delegation, (2) Constitutional questions, and (3) Participation in the meetings.

Composition of the delegation—The President of the National Education Association appointed three types of representatives, delegates, alternate delegates, and participating representatives. According to the instructions of July 3, 1925, the Association thought it desirable to limit the official representation to the twenty-five delegates, allowing them discretion to add to their number the alternates and such others as later might be deemed to be advisable. There were officially appointed 25 delegates, 18 alternate delegates, and 72 participating representatives. Three times this total number of Americans were present at the meeting.

At the first meeting the 19 official delegates added to their number the 11 alternate delegates who were present at the meeting, and in addition Mrs. Beers of Hawaii and Mr. Vizcarrondo of Porto Rico. This made an official delegation of 32. It was this delegation which represented you.

However, no Americans were excluded from the majority of the sessions of the delegation and all members of the National Education Association were allowed the floor. At that time the Scotch group in charge of the meeting saw no distinction in those attending and anyone who appeared was considered as a delegate. Until the question of representation was decided there was no point in drawing too strict a line.

Constitutional questions—As you know, the World Federation adjourned its preliminary meeting at San Francisco without any very definite constitution. Only the most general working basis was agreed upon, most of the important questions being left for the Edinburgh meeting to settle. At its meeting in Indianapolis last July the National Education Association instructed its delegation as to the stand to be taken on certain important questions.

The first of these was the question of membership. The National Education Association advised us to secure if possible a clause in the constitution restricting the membership to the chief or leading national education association of each land and the representation to be limited to delegates from this association in each country. So far as the United States is concerned, this was an eminently proper request. We have a national association. It includes all types of teachers. It extends throughout the length and breadth of our land. It is truly representative. But almost all the other countries of the world have a different situation. There are some 15 organizations of teachers in England, 11 in France, 2 in China which are equally strong, equally representative, and equally important. On the continent in particular there is a sharp social distinction between teachers in elementary schools, teachers in secondary schools, and teachers in colleges. The one group has nothing to do with the other. Now, while it was right to philosophize about the matter, and show these other countries the benefits of one grand inclusive association, the World Federation was confronted with a condition, not a theory; and it was plain to your delegation that we as Americans could not force through our plan when it was so manifestly unsuited to the rest of the world. In addition the whole notion of the National Education Association as an association for the benefit of children and education in general as contrasted with a union for the benefit of teachers themselves has been slow to develop elsewhere in the world. In some countries, it was pointed out, there were no national associations of teachers at all, nevertheless the best way to start one would be to admit some smaller group and assist it to grow.

With these things in mind, the American delegation acceded to the request of the other nations that membership be limited to (a) any national educational organization or association of persons directly connected with education whose application shall be approved by the Board of Directors.

and (b) any organization of educators in a country not possessing a nationwide organization whose application shall be approved by the Board of Directors.

It was further the wish of the National Education Association expressed in the instruction of July 3, 1925, that the principle of proportional representation be adhered to. This seemed a natural desire and justified by common sense; but it was interesting to see how little support for it there was present in Edinburgh. It was just like in our own Constitutional Convention with Rhode Island wanting as much voice as Virginia. The arguments were persuasive; the little countries needed the most help; the United States was great and did not need it.

The other instructions of the National Education Association were carried out in full. Commissioner Thomas was reelected President; Professor Williams, Secretary, and Superintendents Siders and Bradford members of the Board of Directors.

The World Federation of Education Associations has now a working constitution, the National Education Association of the United States has within it its proper place, and the American delegation to the next meeting will not need to devote so large a proportion of its efforts to matters of organization and constitution. With fifty delegates to the next meeting we shall be in a position to exercise whatever influence for good we are able to, and in addition have an opportunity to learn from other nations.

Participation in the meetings—One can not attend a meeting like the one in Edinburgh without becoming impressed with one's own smallness of vision. We had thought that we knew what a teacher's association would be and what its meetings would be like. In accord with this, President Thomas, who had made a deal with the Scotch, made arrangements for five of the section meetings, preschool, primary, secondary, character, and illiteracy. The Scotch on the other hand had arranged for adolescent, adult, universities, health, teacher training, and international relations. We Americans had our meetings all fixed, a set program, and unity of ideas. The Scotch, on the other hand, had a chairman and a general topic and the rest was discussion. Anyone who wished to send up his card was heard. And lots of cards were sent up. Naturally the Americans didn't like the Scotch program and the Scotch didn't like the American. But each learned something and that was the important thing.

You would have been proud of the Americans at the meeting I am sure. Almost without exception the American contribution was on a high level and was well received. There were a few present who did us no good. Some gave an air of dissension among the Americans. There were a few who attended primarily to advertise their own pet projects, but fortunately these were in the great minority.

What we had to learn was that we were not the whole show; that there are educational ideas outside of America; that other countries have made much progress; and that we have as much as or more to learn than we have

to give. It is this that makes our membership in the World Federation a thing of value.

There were all in all 233 names on the program, 71 from Scotland, 46 from the United States, 32 from England, 12 from Japan, 6 each from India, China, France, and Canada, 5 from Hungary, 4 from Belgium and Czechoslovakia, 3 from Denmark, Germany, Ireland, and Sweden, 2 from Austria, Chili, Greece, and Jugo Slavia, and one each from Bulgaria, Burma, Ceylon, Egypt, Finland, Indore, Lithuania, New Zealand, Norway, Panama, Poland, Russia, South Africa, and Siam.

Most distinguished educators were present, Sir Michael Sander, Sir Charles Cleland, J. J. Findlay, George Kerschensteiner, Princess Radizwell, and Dr. Nitobe, Dr. P. W. Kwo, and Chancellor Tsai, Professor Beltette and Petit Dutailis, Dr. Gennadius, and Sir Donald MacAllister, Ramsay MacDonald, and G. K. Chesterton, and a host of others.

All told it was a great occasion and most worthwhile.

As Chairman of the Committee on International Relationship I request the National Education Association formally to approve the action of your delegation.

We further recommend the immediate appointment of the next delegation, fifty delegates, and as many alternates as thought best appointed in order so that vacancies may be filled automatically. This will enable the delegation to prepare for its work, learn its task, and thus become better able properly to represent before the rest of the world the National Education Association of the United States.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE OF ONE HUNDRED ON CLASSROOM TEACHERS PROBLEMS—A REPORT OF PROGRESS

ANNA RIDDLE, ST. JOSEPH, MISSOURI, CHAIRMAN

Introduction

This committee was appointed in the fall of 1923 for the purpose of studying professional problems which apply specifically to teachers whose work is in the classroom. The report for last year contained a brief summary of the work carried on by the first chairman, Mary C. C. Bradford, and also the result of a study on teacher rating, this subject having been suggested by the members of the Committee at the Washington meeting in July, 1924.

Because such problems as tenure, retirement allowances, rating, and ethics of the profession, all of which are of vital interest to teachers, are already receiving attention through other committees of the Association it was thought best to concentrate on a study of quite a different nature.

Contributions of Classroom Teachers to the Solution of Special Problems

Teachers everywhere are making outstanding contributions to the solution of special problems outside of the curriculum. These activities have

been rightly called the classroom teacher's second mile. Early in the year the chairman decided that a study of such problems and the teacher's share in solving them would be of interest to the Association. Accordingly a letter was sent to the one hundred members of the committee asking for their opinion on the work to be undertaken. The replies received voiced approval of the project and showed a keen interest in the plan outlined. Many expressed a willingness to send in a description of an unusual contribution a teacher or group of teachers had made to the solution of a special problem. Other correspondence followed and much valuable material was contributed. So that all teachers who were interested might have an opportunity to know about the work of the Committee and to share in its activities a page was given to it in the February Journal. A meeting of the Committee was held in Washington, February 23, and the chairman was authorized to proceed with the work outlined.

Following is the suggested list of special problems submitted to the committee:

- Interpreting the school to the public
- Successful American Education Week programs
- Interpreting home conditions of pupils to the school: (a) Personnel officer, a clearinghouse for reports from individual teachers
- Helping promote a constructive parent-teacher program
- Meeting community wants, such as securing adequate playgrounds, organizing county extension library in rural community, organizing a junior park commission, fostering home garden contests, helping control epidemics, helping make the school a community center where one is needed
- Directing a school's participation in a community celebration, such as music festival, founder's day
- Effective Americanization work
- Personal problems—Helping pupils to succeed in spite of such obstacles as maladjustment, poverty, cruelty at home, language difficulties, personal difficulties, etc.
- Directing student activities, such as social service projects, junior traffic squad
- Providing for the developing of special talents in children
- Preventing pupil tardiness, absence, and delinquency
- Improving moral conditions in the school
- Developing respect for law
- Developing idealism and character education among pupils
- Developing successful health programs adapted to individual and community needs—Teaching cleanliness and health habits
- Developing good reading habits among pupils
- Training children in thrift habits
- Working out unique devices for safety instruction and traffic regulations
- Carrying on scientific research in field of methods, child study, and other lines
- Developing a better professional spirit among teachers.

It will be seen that the above topics group themselves around the general problems; school activities, the school and the home, the school and community, moral training, health training, and personnel problems. We know that it is only through the closest relations between the school and the home that the child can be equipped to cope with the world about him.

What more effective work could be done by a teacher than to assist in promoting a constructive parent-teacher program? The parents can not do it alone. The teacher can not do it alone. It must be cooperative. The school is under obligation to exert its influence in behalf of better homes—to understand the parent's task and to make it easier. The home is under obligation to support the school and to help the child maintain a right attitude toward it.

No phase of education is demanding greater attention from the school today than moral training. No phase of education presents greater opportunities to the individual teacher. In moral education or education for citizenship the school and the home are inseparably linked. The home should be responsible for individual character training, then the school would have its definite task of supplementing that training by the teaching of group morality in classroom relationships and on the athletic field. The real teacher, however, does not wait for ideal conditions, but daily trains his pupils in habits of honesty, obedience, promptness, perseverance, contentment, justice, patriotism, resourcefulness, self-control and self-reliance.

The past ten years have witnessed remarkable changes in health training in the schools. The inculcation of right living habits has supplemented the study of physiology texts. From the standpoint of influencing the younger child or the child of adolescent years the teacher has a moral obligation to keep himself in such good health as to radiate a feeling of fitness. Many teachers are doing unusual work along health lines, and their influence is reflected in the lives of the boys and girls under their care.

The number of personnel problems with which teachers are daily coping are legion. There are thousands of teachers helping pupils to succeed in spite of such obstacles as poverty, language difficulties, cruelty in the home, extreme nervousness, or an irascible temper, but this is one of the unwritten chapters in the history of the profession.

The chairman desires to take this opportunity to thank the members of the Committee and all those whom they interested in sending contributions. The response was most generous. Much more material was received than can be used in a report of this kind, but it has served to convince the chairman that the study has been very much worthwhile. This is simply a report of progress and if it is the desire of the committee the work will be carried on another year.

The purpose of the list of problems submitted was simply to serve as a guide in suggesting others. Much valuable material was received which could not be classified under any of the topics suggested. So far as possible the reports used have been grouped under general headings, but with others there has been no attempt to classify them.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON VISUAL EDUCATION

THOMAS E. FINEGAN, HARRISBURG, PA., CHAIRMAN

At the meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association held in Washington in February this committee announced informally that the Eastman Kodak Company had decided to enter upon an experiment in the production of moving pictures to be used for illustrative and instructional purposes in the regular classroom work of the schools. The proposed experiment is one of such promise and encouragement in the scientific development of this phase of visual instruction that the committee regards the movement to be one of such importance to the teachers and school authorities of the nation that it should make a complete report of the general scope of the plan and the methods of procedure under which this company has announced the experiment will be conducted.

When the company had decided definitely to enter upon this experiment last March, George Eastman, chairman of its board of directors, invited a number of educators to meet at his offices in Rochester, N. Y., for a general conference on the subject. The following were present:

- Howard Burdge, Principal of the Fredonia, N. Y., State Normal School.
- Otis Caldwell, Principal, Lincoln School, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.
- Charles E. Finch, Director of Vocational Schools, Rochester, N. Y.
- John H. Finley, New York Times.
- William A. McAndrew, Superintendent of Schools, Chicago, Ill.
- Mary Pennell, Butler Hall, New York City.
- Mabel Simpson, Supervisor, Primary Grades, Rochester, N. Y.
- Payson Smith, Commissioner of Education of Massachusetts.
- Herbert S. Weet, Superintendent of Schools, Rochester, N. Y.
- Thomas E. Finegan, Harrisburg, Pa., Chairman, Visual Education Committee, National Education Association.

Mr. Eastman, his business associates and members of the administrative and scientific staff of the company explained in much detail to this group of educators the plans and procedure under which the company proposed to conduct this experiment. These plans revealed a careful, scientific consideration of every aspect of the enterprise and were cordially approved. Mr. Eastman requested information upon the particular portions of the curriculum best adapted to the use of moving pictures for teaching purposes and the divisions of school work where their introduction appeared most desirable and feasible. Much time was given to the discussion of this feature of the work and all present participated in it. It was the unanimous opinion that in the experimental stages of the enterprise it was essential to concentrate upon the most vital subjects of the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades and the junior high school. The company announces that it proposes to limit its first experiments to these divisions of the public schools and to the following subjects:

1. Geography
2. Health and Hygiene
3. Civics
4. Fine and Practical Arts
5. General Science

The company has on its staff some of the ablest scientific men to be found, who will devote their talents to this experiment. It proposes to associate with them, in the employment of the company, trained experts in the field of public education and teachers of wide experience and successful achievement in each of the subjects and fields for which pictures will be produced. The pictures will be adapted to the needs of modern, scientifically constructed curriculums. It is not intended to make these pictures for entertainment purposes but solely to illustrate, to amplify, to make clear, to give a lasting impression of the very heart of the lesson to be taught. There will be frequent conferences with leading teachers and students of education so that the broadest professional judgment possible may be obtained.

In order to give the experiment the benefit of varied interests and viewpoints in education and to make it expressive of national interests and conditions, leading centers in various sections of the country will be invited to cooperate in the movement. Ten cities have been selected. The school authorities of some of these have already been approached and have cordially availed themselves of this opportunity. The proposal will be presented to the others promptly. The following cities have been chosen: Rochester; Detroit; Chicago; Kansas City; Denver; Los Angeles; New York; Springfield or Newton, Mass.; Atlanta; Winston-Salem.

The company announces that it will devote about two years to these experiments and that during the experimental stages no sales whatever will be made to schools. The company will loan to the selected school systems sets of films as they are produced and the necessary projection apparatus, screens, etc., without charge or obligation on the part of the school authorities. It is understood, of course, that the schools will make reasonable use of these films and cooperate with education committees to determine their value, their defects, and how they may be improved. The use and tests of these films will be under a plan which will not interfere with the regular work and program of the school. The interests and conveniences of teachers and the schools will be given every necessary consideration. The whole plan has been worked out on a basis compatible with the interests and purposes of the schools and the ethics of the profession of teaching.

To make the moving picture a really effective educational agency a film library should be established in every school so that films may be available for daily use as occasion arises in the regular processes of instruction for service similar to that now afforded by maps, charts, textbooks, reference works, scientific apparatus, etc. The cost of production and distribution of films and necessary apparatus at the present time makes this type of moving picture service prohibitive.

The development of moving pictures, therefore, as an aid to visual instruction involves economic as well as educational or professional problems. This experiment is approached with a vision and spirit which should render it possible to determine whether either or both of these aspects of the general proposition may be solved. Is it possible to produce the character of teaching films which will yield a measurable result in classroom work of sufficient value to make their use of real service? If such films can be used and this result can be achieved, is it possible to produce and distribute or to sell these films to the schools at a price which will make it practical and feasible for the schools to provide them? The development of moving pictures for general public school use is dependent upon the solution of these two problems. The fact that a corporation of the commercial standing of the Eastman Company is willing to invest the large amount of funds essential to this experiment must be regarded as evidence that the company believes these results are attainable.

Teachers and school officers should understand that the films made by the Eastman Company will be the narrow width safety film and will be projected by a machine of the company's own manufacture called the Kadoscope Projector. There are several other projecting machines using this type of film now on the market.

Since its organization in 1922 this committee has expressed a desire to cooperate with any organization financially competent to undertake the production of moving pictures on an adequate scale and under scientific and pedagogical principles for the definite purpose of aiding in the teaching of the public school curriculum. The proposed experiment of the Eastman Company is the first movement instituted of sufficient importance and stability to warrant the serious consideration of the committee. The action of the company was upon its own initiative after surveying the possibilities of the field and a consideration of the expense involved in the experiment. The company has the capital to make the required expenditure, the necessary organization and plant and the prestige and public confidence to give the experiment a thorough trial. In undertaking such experiment the company is rendering an invaluable service to the educational interests of the nation.

The general business in which the Eastman Company is engaged may be said to be akin to the business of making moving pictures available to the schools of the country. This committee was created by the National Education Association for the promotion of the very ends sought by this experiment. The committee is gratified, therefore, to be able to present a detailed report of an experiment so full of promise to the interests represented by our committee as the proposed Eastman experiment. The committee will cordially cooperate with the company in this undertaking and it recommends that teachers and school officers throughout the country extend every assistance and cooperation possible in the movement.

Similar assistance and cooperation should be extended to any other organization entering upon similar experiments in the development of an

educational agency capable of such service in the sound education of the children of the nation as in the possibilities of moving pictures.

At a session of the committee held in Washington last February at the time of the meeting of the Department of Superintendence the appointment of a subcommittee was authorized for the purpose of formulating from available data a pronouncement as to what the motion picture should be expected to do in education and also as to the ideal content of teaching films of various types and that such pronouncement be made available to any producing organization proposing to make educational motion pictures.

The chairman of this committee appointed the following subcommittee:

Ernest L. Crandall, New York City, Chairman

J. V. Ankeny, University of West Virginia, Morgantown, W. Va.

Susan M. Dorsey, Superintendent of Schools, Los Angeles, Calif.

Elizabeth Hall, Minneapolis, Minn.

David Gibbs, Superintendent of Schools, Meriden, Conn.

Edwin H. Reeder, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City

Arthur G. Watkins, Washington, D. C.

A report of this character to be serviceable should be prepared with much deliberation and careful research. It did not appear wise to attempt to prepare such a report within the short period of time between the Washington midwinter meeting and this annual meeting. The chairman of the Visual Education Committee, therefore, instructed the subcommittee to take a full year, or more if necessary, and to present its report to the chairman of the Visual Education for the ensuing year in time so that it may be presented to the annual meeting of this Association in 1927.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON AMERICAN EDUCATION WEEK

THOMAS F. JOHNSON, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION
LANSING, MICH., CHAIRMAN

Your committee on American Education Week has had its usual problems. Conflicting interests which Democracy makes inevitable and which in turn produce those phenomena which a democratic government finds necessary to its existence have made themselves felt. In addition, it has seemed desirable to Commissioner Tigert that the Bureau of Education should no longer cooperate to the extent of acting as one of the functions of this week.

The Americanization commission of the American Legion under the leadership of Frank Cross and your committee feel that we should continue the observance of this week and should secure the cooperation of as many other groups as possible in securing the necessary publicity and in making the week as widely observed as possible.

We have not attempted to prepare slogans for this report and we have endeavored to make the time as nearly satisfactory as is possible. We, therefore, recommend that the week beginning on Sunday, November 7th, be designated as the American Education Week with the following program:

Sunday, November 7**OUR NATION'S GOD**

There is no gainsaying the fact that the American Colonies were founded by groups of Christian people; that Christian ideals have always made themselves felt; and that there is a national recognition of a Christian God.

Monday, November 8**CONSTITUTIONAL RIGHTS' DAY**

The object of this day's work should be to stress the fact that our Constitution gives us certain inalienable rights in the exercise of which we should ever be safe from question.

Tuesday, November 9**EQUAL OPPORTUNITY DAY**

The idea to be developed is that the American system of government which means an equal opportunity for all also demands in our educational system that every child should have that opportunity which is necessary to develop in him or her the best that nature has made possible. It further means health education, character education, in fact everything that can be said to properly minister to this end. This day should also be used to stress adult education, keeping in mind our ambition to see illiteracy wiped out so far as the United States is concerned by 1930.

Wednesday, November 10**OPEN DAY**

Your committee feels that one day should be left open for the development of local program. This may be done either by state or local community. If desired, this program might be transferred to Friday and Friday's program substituted on Wednesday.

Thursday, November 11**ARMISTICE DAY****GOODWILL DAY**

The World War was fought for an ideal and that that ideal is best represented by the spirit of international good will, freedom for all to work out their own salvation unhampered and untrammelled by the ambitions and desires of others.

Friday, November 12

KNOW YOUR SCHOOL DAY

The aim of this day should be an interpretation of the American school, its ideals, aims, standards and needs with particular emphasis upon your local conditions.

Saturday, November 13

COMMUNITY DAY

The program on this day should be built around the fact that the school is in many ways center of the community, and that education is the single biggest community problem.

It is desirable that this program should be developed by the local community in such manner that it becomes continuous.

Fully cognizant of the fact that your committee is attempting the impossible in that no program can be fully satisfactory to any community, if it is adapted to the needs of some widely differing location. They nevertheless present this to you with the hope that its general nature and its extreme flexibility may make it of value to the schools and the communities of the entire country.

*REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE OF ONE HUNDRED ON
RURAL TEACHERS' PROBLEMS*

HAROLD W. FOGHT, CHAIRMAN, NORTHERN STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE
ABERDEEN, S. D.

The Preliminary Program of the Committee Materially Changed

The original plan of the Committee of One Hundred on Rural Teachers' Problems included (1) a general campaign on rural education of a nationwide character, with emphasis on certain recognized needs of rural community life; and (2) a ten-year plan of school reorganization, centering in (a) the maintenance, through private or public aid, of model training schools for rural teachers in connection with several of the outstanding teacher-training institutions in every section of the country; and (b) the reorganization of the course of study for rural schools in several specially organized rural laboratory schools, connected with teachers colleges and normal schools showing particular interest in this type of work. These laboratory schools would develop the subject matter of the course of study, as well as formulate the best methods of modern teaching practice.

Unfortunately this ambitious plan of the committee has had to be postponed, or it may have to be abandoned altogether for want of funds which had been expected from certain philanthropic sources. There is still reason to believe that the necessary funds may still be forthcoming, as negotiations which were dropped a few months ago have again been reopened.

The program of the committee as originally outlined was ambitious, and would probably have proved quite effective if adequate means had been placed at its disposal. Under the circumstances it was necessary to limit the work for the immediate future to a searching study of just *what* the teachers' problems are in the several sections of the country, and to do all that can be done to place these needs effectively before the teachers themselves, as well as their patrons, the state legislatures, and other organizations interested in rural education.

Difficult to Study Teachers' Problems Without Considering Present Day Rural Problems in their Several Other Aspects

Everyone knows that teachers' problems cannot well be considered apart from the general aspects of present day organization of American rural life in its economic and social settings. On this general background rests the all important problem of adequate financial support, satisfactory school unit organization, school administration, supervision, etc. It would probably be beyond the province of the present Committee to make a particular study of all of these backgrounds, although it is impossible to get to the bottom of the teachers' perplexing problems without touching many of them here and there. It has been, therefore, the policy of the Committee to emphasize this year the *basic* teachers' problems particularly, and give somewhat less time to the problems of school organization, administration, supervision, etc.

Work of the Past Year Limited to a Preliminary Survey of the Most Important of the Teachers' Problems in the Different Geographical Sections of the United States

During the past year each member of the committee has made a survey of his own state and particular section of the country as regards the problems of rural teachers by geographical divisions.

It will be seen that these findings include both the immediate teachers' problems and the more remote problems of the rural schools. The most significant of these are set forth below. The problems are ranked in accordance with the importance placed upon them by the committee members reporting:

1. *Adequate financial support as the basis of good schools*—A large educational program which may eventually remedy the weaknesses in the rural schools must provide first sufficient financial support. Unless sufficient revenues are secured and then distributed in a manner to secure results commensurate with expenditures, the rural schools will continue to remain the weakest link in the educational system. Just how this adequate support shall be obtained is largely an unsolved problem in many sections of the country.

2. *Better rural teachers*—A rural community might have a good school plant, well equipped with adequate playgrounds and good roads leading to it, and yet the community has no real school unless it has a teacher who

is properly qualified for his work before he undertakes it. The average American rural community sustains terrible losses because of inadequately prepared teachers. Minimum standards for the training of such teachers should be carefully studied and recommendations made to the proper authorities. Certain definite minimum standards for the training of rural teachers should be adopted by the teachers colleges and normal schools of the country, which standards should emphasize not alone a liberal subject matter, but methods of presentation, rural attitude of mind, rural type of social development, as well as natural gifts and ability on the part of the teachers-in-training.

3. *Minimum state certification requirements*—Law-making bodies in the several states and teacher-training institutions must cooperate in raising teaching standards. Legislatures and the general public must somehow come to realize the great losses due to poor teaching. But poor teaching will continue as long as certification standards remain low. A careful study must be made of the certification requirements in the several states and a campaign begun for minimum requirements, which probably should be set at not less than high school graduation, or its equivalent, plus at least two years of professional training in a teachers college, or its equivalent.

4. *Closer supervision of rural schools with emphasis on the "helping teacher"*—The supervision of the rural schools is with very few exceptions the county superintendent's or inspector's task. In a majority of cases these supervisors are burdened with many administrative problems and have neither the time nor ability to give the rural teachers the professional help which they need. Much of the time, money, and effort that is spent in preparing teachers is wasted because they do not have enough assistance in making definite application of their training, or relating what they have learned to their specific tasks in the schoolroom. There is accordingly an important field for study here—professional assistance for county superintendents, either under the name of deputy superintendents, helping teachers, or what not.

5. *A vitalized rural school curriculum, content and method*—It is important to realize that the general fundamentals of an education must be the same whether children live in city or country. However, children reared in rural communities must have the local coloring of the environment in which they live as fully as other children should have the local coloring of the city where they chance to live. The curriculum is not static and there is great and continuous need for a study of it, both in regard to content—which is of common interest to all children, regardless of where they live—and special application as it relates itself to the various types of localities.

6. *School plant organized to meet rural community needs*—It is time for the public to realize that the school building is the laboratory in which the school education is acquired. A majority of our one-teacher school structures are wholly inadequate in this respect. There must be

better physical conditions and better material equipment throughout. So far as possible the building should be planned for rural community purposes. There is also great need to study rural schools as to types, both consolidated and one-teacher.

7. *Better salaries for rural teachers*—"When a teacher teaching in the rural schools receives such a salary as will be adequate to the amount expended for preparing for his work through several years of college preparation, a superior class will be attracted to the work." So reports one member of the committee. He continues:

Hundreds of young men and women hopefully and happily take up the work of teaching in rural schools annually. They grow professionally, attend summer schools, and do a certain amount of traveling, but as the years come and go and they find themselves without anything laid by to support them in their declining years, they begin to walk in the shadow of a great fear, that at some future time, after their days of usefulness in the schools are over, they will not be able to maintain themselves in decency or comfort and that they will probably become a charge upon relatives or upon the state. This condition must be remedied.

8. *Longer terms and secure teaching tenures*—These are important additional problems. School terms in rural communities are, generally speaking, too short. In addition, his teaching tenure is altogether too insecure. These problems need serious study in connection with the other problems set forth above.

Specific Problems for 1926

The problems set forth below, on which a preliminary report was made at the Washington meeting of the Department of Superintendence in February of the present year, were chosen for study for 1926. Each committee had been allotted a problem with power to further enlarge the committee from the main committee, if deemed desirable.

I. Immediate Teachers' Problems

1. Basic considerations in teachers' preparation to include: (a) the question of who shall be considered suitable candidates for admission to teacher-training institutions; (b) reasonable minimum scholastic standards for admission to teacher-training institutions; (c) just how to enlist students of good natural ability to prepare for rural teaching.

Committee: Caroline S. Woodruff, Principal, Teacher Training School, St. Johnsbury, Vermont, Chairman.

George W. Works, New York.

Agnes Samuelson, Iowa.

Margaret Sweet, Idaho.

Louise B. Lynd, Arizona.

2. The study of reasonable academic and professional requirements for rural teachers may properly include: (a) uniform minimum standards to be recommended for all states, emphasizing the kind of teacher-training

institutions to be recognized and the amount of time devoted to study;
(b) an analysis of the schools best adapted in which to prepare rural teachers.

Committee: John F. Sims, President Teachers College, Stevens Point, Wisconsin, Chairman.

Irving C. Mitchell, Rhode Island.

Marie T. Harvey, Missouri.

Grace M. Shepherd, Missouri.

Roland Bower, Georgia.

H. V. Holloway, Delaware.

H. L. Turner, Arkansas.

Norman Frost, Tennessee.

Jose C. Rosario, Porto Rico.

3. The preparation of teachers (white) in county normal schools and teacher training high schools.

Committee: Edith Lathrop, Assistant specialist in Rural Education, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C., Chairman.

Gertrude McArthur, Florida.

Lyle Guyer, Nebraska.

H. E. Watson, Oklahoma.

Alice M. Bacon, Oregon.

C. C. Swain, North Dakota.

W. McKinley Robinson, Washington, D. C.

4. Observation and practice teaching requirement for rural teachers.

Committee: O. W. Neale, Head, Department Rural Education, Teachers College, Stevens Point, Wisconsin, Chairman.

J. D. Muldoon, Virginia.

Minnie G. Bean, Washington.

Lela M. McDowell, Michigan.

T. J. Smart, Kansas.

Cora Pearson, Alabama.

5. After school follow-up education for rural teachers. The study should include at least (a) extension service—group study, correspondence, etc.; (b) continued education of new teachers under direction of “helping teachers” sent out from the teacher-training institutions.

Committee: Florence M. Hale, State Agent for Rural Education, Augusta, Maine, Chairman.

Florence Lowry, Nevada.

H. M. Wells, Hawaii.

Jennie Jessop, Maryland.

Ruth Holgate, Maine.

6. Uniform certification requirements to standardize the profession and protect professional teachers from inroads of amateurs.

Committee: A. G. Yawberg, County Superintendent of Schools, Cleveland, Ohio.
Bessie Wells, Alabama.

Hilda M. Hughes, Indiana.

Olive Thompson, Kansas.

Fred C. Fisher, Michigan.

Mabel Hondo, Minnesota.
 A. A. Wood, Montana.
 J. M. Arnold, New Jersey.
 D. C. Brogden, North Carolina.
 E. O. McCowan, Ohio.
 A. S. Burroughs, Washington.
 Albert Earley, Delaware.
 Charl O. Williams, Consulting Member, Washington, D. C.

II. Important Problems More Remote

1. How to get more money for rural education.

Committee: Samuel H. Cohn, Deputy State Superintendent of Education, Sacramento, California, Chairman.
 W. G. Scott, Georgia.
 John Enright, New Jersey.
 Lillian E. Knowles, Rhode Island.
 M. E. Moore, Texas.
 Taylor Brockbank, Utah.
 Z. May Meighan, Washington.
 F. W. Stemple, West Virginia.
 Charl O. Williams, Consulting Member, Washington, D. C.

2. How to secure closer supervision in rural schools.

Committee: Anna Swenson, State Rural School Supervisor, St. Paul, Minnesota, Chairman.
 A. B. Hill, Arkansas.
 N. S. Light, Kansas.
 Charles M. Fisher, Florida.
 Fannie Spaits, Illinois.

3. Longer terms and more secure tenures for rural teachers.

Committee: W. E. Halbrook, State Agent of Rural Schools, Little Rock, Arkansas, Chairman.
 Walter B. Hill, Georgia.
 F. C. Button, Kentucky.
 Evelyn Hodgdon, Maine.

4. School consolidation adapted to present economic conditions.

Committee: Macy Campbell, Head, Rural Education Department, Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa.
 C. G. Sargent, Colorado.
 Bertha Tyler, Iowa.
 Flora Guethlin, Kansas.
 J. V. Chapman, Kentucky.
 J. T. Calhoun, Mississippi.
 Bura Hilbun, Mississippi.
 W. T. Clopton, Missouri.
 Lee L. Driver, Pennsylvania.

5. The man and wife school and what it can do for the rural community.

Committee: Jasper L. McBrien, Head, Rural Department, Central State Teachers College, Edmond, Oklahoma, Chairman.

Charles Dalzell, New Hampshire.
A. Montoya, New Mexico.
Ila Johnston, North Carolina.
Mrs. F. C. Beverley, Virginia.

6. Better living conditions for rural teachers with emphasis on teachers' cottages and boarding places.

Committee: J. C. Muerman, Head, Rural Department, State Teachers College, Durant, Oklahoma.
Victoria Lyles, Oklahoma.
Robert M. Newton, Virginia.
Sue M. Powers, Tennessee.
Mrs. F. C. Beverley, Virginia.

III. Pending such time as adequate funds may become available for the establishment of rural laboratory schools, the following have been designated as a committee on rural school course of study, both for elementary schools and rural high schools. They are at work making a preliminary study of educational objectives.

Committee: L. B. Sipple, Head, Rural Department, Northern State Teachers College, Aberdeen, South Dakota, Chairman and in charge of Elementary Group.
Lewis Tidball, Wyoming, Chairman Secondary Group.
James Hurst, Virginia.
Mae Hamilton, Wyoming.
Luella M. King, Montana.
G. H. Willman, Montana.
William K. English, New Hampshire.
N. W. Walker, North Carolina.
Agnes Jones, North Dakota.
Catherine Culletin, Ohio.
Eva Ehrenfeld, Arizona.
E. C. Cash, Colorado.
C. W. Maddocks, Connecticut.
Russel F. Lund, Connecticut.
Harriet Berninger, Illinois.
Mary Milligan Stroud, Kansas.
Ernest C. Burnham, Michigan.
Margaret Briscoe, South Dakota.
Richard Watson Cooper, Delaware.

The Committee Reports Progress

Since the committee conference, held in Washington last February, marked progress has been made by the several subcommittees. A final report can be prepared in time for the 1927 meeting of the National Education Association.

I. The subcommittee on suitable candidates for admission to teacher-training institutions (Miss Woodruff, Chairman) is working in cooperation with the authorities at Columbia University and the United States Bureau of Education. The committee's plan of study is based on the following outline:

1. A study of conditions today, with a view to determining their strength and their weaknesses.
 - a. Sources and means of getting data
 - b. Available bibliography
 - c. A few type schools representative of latest thought and policy in student selection
2. A study of standards particularly desirable for teachers in rural schools.
 - a. Personal characteristics—ideals, attitudes, social interests
 - b. Scholastic background
 - c. Professional equipment—attitudes, capacities, teaching ability, growing possibilities
3. From this study a recommendation for certain minimum standards to be adopted
 - a. For *admission* to teacher-training institutions
 - b. For *retention* in teacher-training institutions
 - c. For *graduation* from teacher-training institutions.

II. The subcommittee on the study of reasonable academic and professional requirements for rural teachers (John Sims, chairman) is making a survey of the standards at the present time in use throughout the country as a basis for setting up the requirements which may likely approach as a minimum requirement high school graduation or its equivalent and two years of professional study for all rural teachers going into the profession after a given year.

III. The committee on the preparation of teachers (white) in County Normal Schools and Teacher-Training High Schools (Edith Lathrop, chairman) has secured the cooperation of the United States Bureau of Education which is providing the committee with the necessary material dealing with the different phases of the problem for further study. This material is in the process of sifting and cataloging. A summary is likewise being prepared containing the opinions on the advisability of this type of teacher preparation. This is sought mainly from state supervisors of rural teacher training and professors and instructors in charge of rural teacher-training departments in normal schools and teachers colleges.

IV. Report of the subcommittee on observation and practice teaching requirements (O. W. Neale, chairman). The committee has made real progress in its study of practice teaching facilities in the normal schools and teachers colleges which have well organized departments for the training of rural teachers. Steps have also been taken to make a similar study in connection with the county normal schools and classes in states which maintain them.

V. The subcommittee on in-service training (Florence M. Hale, chairman) will soon be ready to make a report on how state departments of public instruction, teacher training institutions and other agencies can be of greatest use to the teacher in advancing the teacher's spirit and scholarship while in actual teaching service in the field.

VI. The subcommittee on uniform certification requirements (A. G. Yawberg, chairman) is at work on the very difficult task of making a nation-wide study of certification requirements on which the committee will

make its recommendations for a uniform certification system for the nation at large. Without some such plan of uniformity, it will be exceedingly difficult to improve teaching in rural communities.

Important Problems More Remote

1. The subcommittee on how to get more money for rural education (Samuel H. Cohn, chairman) has just begun a nation-wide study on the financing of the public schools with special emphasis on rural schools. A complete report may be expected one year hence.

2. The subcommittee on closer supervision in rural schools (Anna Swenson, chairman) is working on the following plan of procedure:

The committee purposes considering two possible lines of study for obtaining closer supervision of rural schools: (1) The improvement of service already in operation; (2) setting up new machinery for supervisory activities.

There is much similarity in the detailed methods of work all over the country, but certain states have advanced much farther than others in the organization of the work, setting up objectives, and adopting specific methods of procedure in supervision. There is much to learn from these states—first from what has been accomplished and also from experimental work.

Suggested procedure:

1. The committee will assemble and summarize information in regard to supervisory work which is being done effectively.

2. The best thought of leaders in rural education in regard to organization of the work in state departments and county or district supervisory units will be assembled.

3. The subcommittee trusts that this information can be made available to the entire committee of 100 and to others who are interested in the problem of supervision in rural schools.

3. The committee on longer school terms and more secure tenure (W. E. Halbrook, chairman) has just been reorganized. It is making a study of the experiences of other states with longer school terms and more satisfactory tenure of office. The final recommendations have been promised a little later in the year.

4. The subcommittee on the man and wife school (Jasper L. McBrien, chairman) is making a nation-wide study of this important phase of rural school management. The committee will without question have a noteworthy report ready for 1927.

5. The subcommittee on the consolidation of schools (Macy Campbell, chairman) is planning for a thoroughgoing study with a view to making recommendations for the establishment of a type of consolidated school which shall meet in every respect the requirements of the average rural community without being the cause of too great a financial drain upon the school communities.

6. The subcommittee on better living conditions for rural teachers (J. C. Muerman, chairman) has its final report almost completed. The report will be based on a study covering the following points: (1) present status of living conditions for teachers in rural districts; (2) what has been done

to remedy these conditions; (3) the most effective means of providing suitable living conditions for our rural teachers.

IX. *The Committee on Rural School Curricula*—elementary and secondary (L. B. Sipple, chairman). The most difficult phase of the entire study is the course of study for rural elementary and secondary schools. The committee feels keenly the need of rural laboratory schools established in good rural environment wherein to develop through daily experience the course of study for rural people. Of schools founded solely for this purpose there are, unfortunately, none in existence in the United States. As the next best thing to do, the subcommittee has been availing itself of daily experience acquired in several of the best rural and practice schools attached to teachers colleges and normal schools in different parts of the country.

The preliminary report of the subcommittee follows:

The Curriculum for the Rural Elementary School

1. *Some present characteristics of the rural elementary curriculum*—In most states an elementary school course of study is published for rural and town schools alike. The urban standards necessarily prevail in such courses.

Little attempt is made at enrichment by requirements in music, nature study, agriculture, home economics, and recreation.

There is usually no provision for special help for the slow or the bright pupil. Minimum and maximum standards are seldom set; only average.

No provision is made for making certain contacts for the child which are necessary for a well-rounded citizen. Notably are the social and community contacts lacking.

Often more thought is given to preparation for high school than for living.

The unit (the entire state) served by the course of study is often too large to take into account local resources or needs.

A wholesome physical education program is often lacking or inadequate.

Little attempt is made to combine and correlate related subject-matter or to group pupils into larger units, thus making many small classes, much repetition, and causing a waste of time for both teacher and pupil.

The course is planned on a graded school basis. No account is taken of the peculiar organization of the one-teacher school. The great advantages which this type of school has for caring for individual pupils is not made the most of.

Methods of teaching or helps for teachers are seldom given.

2. *Aims and Objectives of the Rural Elementary Curriculum*—From recent discussions, a study of publication and a few notable experiments the following may be stated as approaching a consensus of opinion as to objectives and aims for the rural elementary school.

A. CURRICULUM CONTENT OBJECTIVES

The curriculum for the elementary rural school should give rural children a mastery of the tool subjects, a general education, such as *all* American children need. It should also give them a broad cultural or citizenship training to fit them for life in either city or country. It should make the rural child more efficient and his life more satisfying.

The principal difference between rural and urban curricula is one of environment. The rural child lives in a rural environment. Therefore the rural curriculum should be built from that environment and should supply what that environ-

ment lacks. The curriculum must draw freely upon the experiences of the child, upon the educational resources of the community and must supply whatever the environment lacks to round out and complete the life experiences of an American child.

The elementary rural curriculum will differ, then, in content, in point of approach, and in method somewhat from the urban curriculum, but it should be emphasized that the aim is identical, viz., to make the highest type of American citizen.

This means the enrichment of the rural curriculum from the rural environment as well as from the urban environment. It means that nature study, and the farm, home and community occupations must be worked in as the warp and woof of the entire fabric—not to keep farm children on the farm but as a sound principle of pedagogy and that the beauty, dignity and value of rural life shall be magnified.

Provision should be made for all the contacts of life, possible, including urban and the world at large, since this future American citizen must be free to choose his place of service and can choose wisely only when he knows life in many of its aspects.

Vocational efficiency belongs peculiarly to the secondary school and should not be made a primary function of the rural elementary school. Agriculture, nature study, and home economics have a place in such a curriculum as indicated in No. 2 above. The rural child needs to know *about* agriculture but also *about* many other occupations and professions.

A universal curriculum for all the rural schools of the nation is not possible since the environment, the local resources (financial, physical, and social) and the local needs are not identical. The aims and objectives are or should be universal. It is doubtful if the unit which a given curriculum should serve should be larger than a state, due to legal obstacles in crossing state lines. Indeed a much smaller unit than the state may be necessary.

B. REORGANIZATION OBJECTIVES

We commend the efforts at consolidation of rural schools. Could all schools be consolidated the problem of reorganization would be solved and the curriculum making much simplified. Since the one-teacher rural school will remain in the majority for many years to come, we think our efforts should be directed towards the solution of its peculiar and particular problems.

Since the type of curriculum developed for one-teacher rural schools will depend somewhat on the organization of these schools the following suggestions are made.

The greatest organization problem of the one-teacher elementary rural school is the large number of grades and classes in the day's work. To aid in the solution of this we recommend:

That every effort be made to organize the rural school system in each state on the 6-3-3 basis. This would at once reduce by one fourth the load of the elementary rural school and make for greater efficiency in the six remaining grades.

We deplore the fact that the city grading system of eight grades has been adopted by rural schools. This plan is wasteful and not sound psychologically in a school with one teacher and all ages of pupils. As a solution for this problem we recommend the following as now being worked out in several rural schools, in a county or two and in several teachers' colleges in their rural demonstration schools:

(a) Reorganize the rural school into three or four groups of pupils (instead of the eight grades). These groups would correspond to the old classification of primary, intermediate, grammar, etc. Membership in each group would be determined by mental and achievement tests. Promotion from group to group should be based upon mental ability, mastery of a certain definite amount of material as

outlined in a reorganized curriculum and certain other factors, including the time element.

(b) This new grouping makes it necessary to reorganize the entire elementary rural school curriculum; *first*, by analyzing each subject in the curriculum to ascertain the extent and details of overlapping, of correlation and of articulation, and, *second*, to reorganize the whole by years and to revamp or place all these overlapping details together again under new or combined subject headings. For instance, history, geography and civics may appear in this new-old curriculum as social science; reading, literature, language, spelling, may appear as English; hygiene, physiology and playground supervision may reappear as physical education; etc. The whole to be organized into a curriculum in accordance with the psychological development of the child. This would not necessarily change the content of the curriculum. It would eliminate the useless and place emphasis on essentials. It would also give time for enrichment of the curriculum with music, art and nature study, which is so badly needed at the present time.

(c) With the changes made as suggested in (a) and (b) it is possible to conduct the day's work in a rural school of the traditional eight grades and a large enrolment with a total of not to exceed 18 recitations (1) instead of the usual 30 to 40 as at present. Should the number of grades be limited to six as suggested in No. 1 above, the total can be still further reduced and rural school organization will become even superior to that of city school organization. In this connection attention is called to the efforts of modern educational practice to place greatest emphasis upon the needs of the individual child and especially to care for the slow pupil and the very bright pupil. Dr. Strayer says, "The most retarded child in America is the bright child." No other school in America can so well care for individuals and especially for the bright and the dull children as can the one-teacher rural school properly organized and properly taught, where pupils of varying ages and abilities are under one teacher. The handicap of the city organization in this respect, where pupils of approximately the same age and ability are all together, is obvious.

The Curriculum for the Rural Secondary School

U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 19, 1917-18, states that there were in 1920, 131,951 public high schools in the United States. One half of these enrolled 50 pupils or less and three fourths enrolled 100 pupils or less. This indicates the importance of the small high school in American education. This small high school is essentially rural.

Just as the rural school problem as a whole is our greatest educational problem, so the problem of the rural high school is our most important unsolved problem in secondary education. Some attention is being given this problem and the most notable study is that made in New York State and published in 1922.

Suggestions for the Improvement of the Curriculum for the Rural High School—The following suggestions are taken largely from "The Rural High School in New York State" by Emery N. Ferriss, Ithaca, New York. (See p. 180ff.)

I. OUTSTANDING CHARACTERISTICS

1. The work of the rural high school is restricted in the main to the older, more formal subjects of study. The content of its curriculum and the standards set up are still based largely upon preparation for college.¹

2. The aims and objectives for the program of studies as a whole and for the separate subjects are vague and remote, except that the passing of the Regents' examinations is an end prominent in the teaching of every academic subject in the rural high schools.

¹ Bulletin, "Rural Teacher Training," January, 1923, State Teachers College, Aberdeen, South Dakota.

3. The instruction in the subjects offered is formal and bookish, being unduly limited to a single text-book for each course.

4. There is a strong tendency toward a slavish following of the state syllabi resulting in an undue uniformity of subject-matter with a consequent neglect of possible local adaptations, this condition being aggravated by a system of uniform state examinations.

5. There is too much attention given to preparation for examinations resulting in general in overemphasis of mechanical memorizing and underemphasis of the more vital elements of genuine intellectual development.

6. In general there is a lack of recognition of the educational values of extra-classroom activities.

7. Finally, as indicated by the percentage of failures in all academic subjects in the rural high school, neither the subject-matter nor the standards of achievement seem to be suited to the maturity, abilities, and interests of rural high school pupils.

II. RECOMMENDATIONS

1. That there be formed a committee acting in cooperation with the appropriate official in the State Department of Education and fitted to undertake the task by reason of their interest in and acquaintance with the problems of rural secondary education, to work toward the establishment of suitable objectives and reasonable standards for the rural high school.

To insure the existence of an effective type of rural secondary education at all times in the future, plans should be formulated to promote in the state a continuous scientific study of the rural high school and its needs.

2. To facilitate and encourage the adaptation of the work of rural high schools to the needs of the community or region in which they are situated it is recommended that the state requirements in the matter of required subjects and in the subject matter of courses of study be limited to the minimum essentials necessary for the realization of the educational objectives vital to state and national citizenship and health.

3. It is recommended that all subjects of high school grade and taught by a qualified instructor be given equal recognition toward a diploma recognized by the state.

4. It is recommended that the state syllabi in the various secondary school subjects be prepared with attention given to the peculiar needs of the small high school as recommended by the committee referred to above, and that they be revised at least every five years.

5. It is recommended that objectives, curricula, and syllabi for junior high schools in rural communities be developed by the state. In general these should observe the principles suggested for the development of objectives, curricula, and syllabi for the regular high school. They should be suited to the needs and maturity of rural pupils of 12 to 15 years of age.

6. The following recommendations are made with regard to the offering of particular subjects in the rural high schools:

a. Undoubtedly the social science group is one of the most genuinely liberalizing groups of studies in the secondary school. It furnished the most direct means for teaching citizenship. For meeting the needs of today, and particularly of those pupils who do not continue education beyond the rural high school, a reorganization of the work in the social sciences seems desirable.

b. It is recommended that there be developed for the rural high school a course in the study of occupations. It is believed that such a course would have significant values in teaching citizenship. It should also serve directly as a

means of acquainting pupils with the opportunities for vocational service, and serve as a basis for guidance in the intelligent choice of a vocation.

c. Efficient homemaking is of basic importance in promoting the welfare of the home and of good citizenship. The great majority of the girls enrolled in the rural high schools will ultimately become homemakers. In 1919-20 only 11 per cent of the rural schools of New York offered opportunities for training homemakers. The establishing of courses in homemaking in every rural high school is recommended. Such courses should be enriched and broadened so as to meet in the fullest possible manner the home and community needs. Credit should be given on the same basis as for academic subjects. Emphasis should be given to the problem of getting colleges to accept for entrance the work in home-making subjects.

d. One of the outstanding needs in the development of rural secondary education is the opportunity for vocational training in agriculture. At present less than 10 percent of the rural high schools offer courses in vocational agriculture. It is recommended, therefore, that courses in vocational agriculture be encouraged in every rural high school of the state where a sufficient number of pupils are interested in the work.

e. It is recommended that the beginning science in rural high schools be a broad introduction to science designed to give the pupil contact with the many phases of science as it affects his daily life rather than a detailed acquaintance with a special field of scientific knowledge highly organized. General science seems best adapted to meet these demands. For the rural high schools of New York, however, it should be developed with definite regard to the experience background of the rural high school pupil of New York and with flexibility permitting adaptation to a condition peculiar to particular localities.

f. It is recommended that less emphasis be given to the study of foreign languages in the rural high schools, and that all work in foreign languages, both ancient and modern, be elective.

g. It is recommended that intermediate algebra, advanced algebra, and trigonometry, particularly the last two, be discouraged in the rural high school, and that for pupils not preparing for college not more than one year of mathematics be required.

h. It is recommended that the curriculum of the rural high school be organized in the first two years with the view to meeting most effectively the needs and interests of all pupils and that subjects specifically required for college entrance be offered in the last two years of high school.

7. It is recommended that a careful study be made as to the educational values of extra-classroom activities.

8. It is recommended that more definite guidance be given rural high school principals in the organization of their daily programs: with the purpose (1) of increasing the range of subjects offered in the high school; (2) of meeting more directly community needs, and (3) at the same time with a view to reducing the teaching load for teachers.

9. In conclusion it would seem that the problem of the rural high school in New York and other states is to develop a type of secondary education suited to the needs, abilities, and life purposes of rural high school pupils. Its dominant aim should be the development of individually and socially efficient persons within the limits of the secondary school and of the maturity of pupils of high school age. Its work should be determined in the light of the possibilities and responsibilities of the public secondary school as an institution, rather than as an institution the work of which is primarily preparatory for high education.

The subcommittee on rural school curricula are continuing their study according to the outline set forth below:

1. That a further study of aims and objectives be made.
2. That the committee be divided into two groups, one to attack the problem concerning the curriculum for the rural elementary school and the other that of the rural secondary school.
3. That the committee encourage establishment of rural laboratory schools, both elementary and secondary, at teachers' colleges to further work out curricula for both types of schools,
4. That state departments of education and state teachers' associations be urged to appoint commissions to make state-wide surveys of the small town high school, consolidated high school and rural high school to the end that rural youth be better served.

The Committee of One Hundred request that it be continued for another year. The plan is to meet again at Dallas in February, next, and to make its final report at the National Education Association meeting in 1927.

TEACHER TENURE IN THE UNITED STATES

FRED M. HUNTER, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, OAKLAND
CALIFORNIA, CHAIRMAN

Brief of the discussion by the chairman in presenting the report—The great purpose of teacher organization in America, as I understand it, is to create among those who teach, a true profession. If the National Education Association and the organizations working in common with it can accomplish this end, they will have conferred upon the childhood of America, and consequently upon the people of the nation, a contribution of priceless value. No more powerful factor in maintaining permanent prosperity and happiness among the people of America can be imagined than the increment to human efficiency resulting from a policy on the part of the American people of training their children to the responsibilities of citizenship and productive living through a profession that invites to its ranks the ablest and most capable of its people.

What has this Association done toward the accomplishment of this great purpose? A thoroughgoing review of the progress of our Association in this field would necessarily be too elaborate and extended for this discussion. Briefly and inadequately summarized, it may be said that a great growth in professional consciousness, an increasing desire on the part of all teachers for solidarity, a recognized responsibility for active and militant support of the institutions of public education, and an attack upon the problems affecting the living conditions of the members of the teaching body have characterized the work of these organizations in the last few years. The means used are familiar to us all; such as, the reorganization of associations and leagues upon a democratic basis, the use of professional journals of high standard as a means of exchange of viewpoint and intercommunication, development of a system of research which makes universally available the unerring facts relative to the work of teaching, and the like.

This report received wide circulation and has been used in state and local campaigns for teacher tenure legislation. So great was the need for tenure legislation which the 1924 report revealed in its study of conditions in the elementary and secondary schools that those members of the Committee of One Hundred on the Problem of Tenure who were members of normal schools and teachers colleges, requested that the Committee make a study of teacher tenure in these institutions of higher learning. This study formed the basis of the 1925 Report of the Committee.

Our first step must be to enlist all teachers in the active support of this cause. To do this, we ourselves must understand the requirements for a true profession. Let us consider these for a moment. Let us consider what characteristics are necessary for a trade or occupation to make it a profession, and then let us see wherein teaching measures up and wherein it is lacking.

In the main, the characteristics of a profession are as follows:

1. It must render a needed and vital service.
2. It must have a scientific method of procedure for the attainment of the purpose of the profession.
3. It must present a set of economic conditions for work which guarantee stability to its membership and an economic return sufficient to maintain a proper level of living and give assurance against dependency in old age.

In the case of the teaching profession it is highly essential that the best material of the land should be attracted to the profession and that the teaching group itself should go about it to establish conditions which will make this possible.

A profession maintains a standard of preparation for its members, a standard of improvement in service and a plan for the elimination of the unfit. Now, wherein does teaching meet this set of standard characteristics?

Undoubtedly, teaching renders a needed and vital service. Undoubtedly, it has developed a scientific method of procedure for the attainment of its ends. Where teaching is lacking in the true elements of profession is in the economic conditions which surround the work of its members. As yet teaching is unstable. In many states the teaching turnover during a single year runs considerably above 50 percent of the entire number engaged in the work of teaching in the state. Meritorious teachers are not assured of their positions. The prevailing policy throughout most of the states is hire and fire at the pleasure of the board or at most upon a yearly contract basis. Salary schedules which guarantee a proper level of living for a profession and give assurance against dependency in old age have not yet been established. These conditions add very greatly to the problem of creating a true profession, the problem of establishing a solid body of public sentiment in behalf of public education, in fact, to the problem of institution building as it concerns the great work of public education in America.

Let us further remember that institutions of democracy are founded upon public opinion, and none so completely as the public schools. In every community in this land, the teaching group is responsible for the education of an enlightened public sentiment relative to the support of public education. In each community, it is no less responsible for the attitude of public opinion toward the work of teaching and its standing as a profession.

The picture which the public mind has of the schools and of teaching as a profession is certain to be created by a very inadequate set of circumstances based on past experience of the individuals which constitute the public unless the teaching group undertakes consciously, systematically, and by means of a scientifically developed program to change that picture to conform to the determined needs of the public schools.

In the case of teacher tenure, this work must be carefully and thoroughly done. It will never do to permit people to believe that the case of teacher tenure is the case of the poor teacher seeking to escape merited dismissal. If the teaching profession permit this, the profession will be inevitably injured and its progress stifled. The teachers of the community must carry the case for tenure to the public as a movement in behalf of the schools and the children. To back them in this, they have indisputable evidence showing that indefinite tenure works in the interest of a more permanent and abler teaching body, and that more competent young people are thereby attracted to the profession.

The principal reasons for a conclusion of this kind may be summarized as follows:

1. Indefinite or permanent tenure tends to decrease teacher turnover and stabilize the profession.
2. It protects the great body of good teachers from political attack and from dismissal for petty personal and political reasons. It is in accordance with the American principle of civil service and against a political spoils system in the schools.
3. A sound tenure law provides for the easy dismissal of incompetent or insubordinate teachers where just cause can be shown.
4. It encourages professional growth and a higher professional standard for all teachers.
5. It tends to attract to the profession able and competent young persons because of increased stability of the profession and better opportunities for a career in teaching.

Printed Report in Hands of Delegates

Accomplishments of the Committee of One Hundred on the Problem of Tenure—The Committee of One Hundred of the National Education Association on the Problem of Tenure has for the past two years presented extensive reports on the subject of *Teacher Tenure*. The 1924 Report covered these ten points:

1. Origin of the Issue of Teacher Tenure
2. Teacher Turnover in the United States
3. Court Cases Affecting Teacher Tenure

4. Analysis of Present and Proposed State Teacher Tenure Laws
5. Survey of Local Tenure Regulations
6. Teacher Tenure Provisions in Foreign Countries.
7. A Defensible Standard of Merit for Teacher Tenure
8. Bibliography on Teacher Tenure
9. Texts of State Teacher Tenure Laws
10. Texts of Seven Local Teacher Tenure Regulations.

This Report received wide circulation and has been used in state and local campaigns for teacher tenure legislation. So great was the need for tenure legislation which the 1924 Report revealed in its study of conditions in the elementary and secondary schools that those members of the Committee of One Hundred on the Problem of Tenure, who were members of normal schools and teachers colleges, requested that the Committee make a study of teacher tenure in these institutions of higher learning. This study formed the basis of the 1925 Report of the Committee.

During the present year the Committee has sought to do these four things:

1. Follow all state and local legislation relative to teacher tenure since January 1, 1925.
2. Keep in touch with court decisions relative to teacher tenure, rendered since January 1, 1925.
3. Study the amount of teacher turnover in each of the forty-eight states during the year 1924-1925.
4. Review literature on the subject of teacher tenure published since 1920.

Information received from state superintendents of schools, and from secretaries of state teachers associations show that in many states, committees are at work, studying the problem of teacher tenure. In 1927, forty state legislatures will convene. Already plans are under way to introduce teacher tenure bills in a number of these state legislatures.

Only two court cases came to the attention of the Committee. California reported that in January, 1926, a case was pending to declare the tenure law invalid. In Iowa an opinion was rendered by the state superintendent of schools. It was held that matters of contract do not come under the personal supervision of county or state superintendent except in so far as the incompetence of the teacher is concerned.

The Committee has confined its present Report to these two topics:

- I. Need for Longer Tenure as Shown by Amount of Teacher Turnover in Each of the Forty-Eight States During 1924-1925.
- II. Review of Literature on the Subject of Teacher Tenure Published Since 1920.

Large Teacher Turnover—One of the Weakest Spots in Our Educational System

To ascertain the amount of teacher turnover in each of the forty-eight states during the years 1924-1925, a special inquiry was sent to all state superintendents of schools, asking for information on these three points, relative to their particular states. When exact figures were not available careful estimates were asked for:

1. Total number of teachers, kindergarten to high school, inclusive, required for the school year 1924-1925 to fill positions vacated by teachers *leaving the field of teaching* for any reason whatsoever, as death, retirement, old age, marriage, change of occupation, etc.
2. Total number of teachers, kindergarten to high school inclusive, for the school year 1924-1925 who left one teaching position to accept a teaching position in another district in the state or outside the state.
3. Total number of teachers, kindergarten to high school inclusive, employed in the public schools of the state for the school year 1924-1925.

Table I summarizes the data supplied by the state superintendents of schools, relative to the above three points. In many instances exact information was not available and estimates were made. The table shows that in practically every case, where data are available, the number of teachers changing from one teaching position to another teaching position is considerably greater than the number of teachers leaving the teaching profession in 1924-1925. Both of these numbers are exceedingly large in many states, representing as they do approximately fifty percent or half of the total teaching body in some states.

TABLE 1.—TEACHER TURNOVER IN THE UNITED STATES FOR THE YEAR 1924-1925

State	Total number of teachers (kindergarten to high school inclusive) required for the school year 1924-1925 to fill positions vacated by teachers leaving the profession	Total number of teachers (kindergarten to high school inclusive) for the school year 1924-1925 who left one teaching position to accept another teaching position	Total number of teachers (kindergarten to high school inclusive) employed in the public schools for the school year 1924-1925
1	2	3	4
Arizona.....	(1)	(1)	(**)
Arkansas.....	2,300*	3,500*	10,000*
California.....	3,984*	(**)	33,394
Colorado.....	About 30%	60%	9,233
Connecticut.....	1,378	354	9,629
Dist. of Columbia.....	85	(**)	2,576
Florida.....	(2)	(2)	8,615
Georgia.....	2,162 white; 1,500 colored; total 3,662*	4,204 white; 3,000 colored; total 7,204*	12,569 white; 4,444 colored; total 17,013
Idaho.....	500	1,500	4,350
Illinois.....	4,500*	(**)	43,865
Kansas.....	2,990	(**)	19,178
Kentucky.....	2,800*	(**)	12,106
Louisiana.....	800 (white)	1,800 (white)	8,577 (white)
Maine.....	834*	1,366	6,300
Maryland.....	876 ⁴	(**)	10,841
Massachusetts.....	1,714*	1,103*	23,265
Michigan.....	(**)	(**)	27,918 ⁵
Minnesota.....	4,285*	(**)	21,544
Missouri.....	350*	(**)	2,390

* Number is approximated. ** Data were not available.

¹ A *Survey of the Arizona Public School System*, conducted by C. Ralph Tupper under the authority of the State Board of Education, and published January 1, 1925, shows these facts relative to teacher tenure:

"Thirty-five per cent of the teachers are teaching their first year in Arizona. Six per cent are teaching their first year in Arizona and have come from Arizona schools. Arizona therefore imported last year at least 29 per cent of her present teaching staff."

"The average Arizona teacher has had six years of teaching experience and has held three positions in that time. The average rate of moving from one position to another is shown below:

	Elementary	Secondary
Every year or oftener.....	16%	11%
Every two years.....	52%	50%
Every three years.....	65%	56%

"A tendency toward greater permanency in positions is evident among secondary teachers, although some localities show a reverse tendency, having an average annual turnover of 30 per cent in the grades and 50 per cent in the high school."

² The population of this State is increasing so rapidly and teachers change positions so often that an exact statement as to teacher turnover is difficult to make.

³ Maine has made great headway in recent years in holding her teachers and the preparation of teachers, she usually had a turnover of about 1,200 to 1,400 each year out of 6,300 positions. Last year she required only 834 new teachers. Her normal schools graduated about 650.

⁴ Includes 697 teachers for the 23 counties of Maryland and 179 for the city of Baltimore. For the 23 counties the data were estimated on basis of number of inexperienced teachers employed in the case of the 127 new high school teachers employed, about 60 were for newly created positions.

⁵ This represented an increase of 1,200 over 1923.

How can the teaching profession be stabilized?—Data such as those presented in the above table face us with such questions as these:

1. In no state does it seem reasonable that in any one year more than twenty percent of the teachers would be leaving the teaching profession because of marriage, old age, or death. What then are the additional reasons why thousands of teachers leave the teaching profession annually? Is it because of poor salaries? Lack of opportunity for personal advancement? Incompatible surroundings?

TABLE 1.—TEACHER TURNOVER IN THE UNITED STATES FOR THE YEAR 1924-1925
(Continued)

State	Total number of teachers (kindergarten to high school inclusive) required for the school year 1924-1925 to fill positions vacated by teachers leaving the profession	Total number of teachers (kindergarten to high school inclusive) for the school year 1924-1925 who left one teaching position to accept another teaching position	Total number of teachers (kindergarten to high school inclusive) employed in the public schools for the school year 1924-1925
1	2	3	4
Montana.....	768 ⁶	(⁶)	5,627
Nevada.....	Not over 75*	(**?)	828
New Hampshire.....	443	494	2,848
New Mexico.....	300*	1,240*	3,787
North Carolina.....	(**)	(**)	22,257
Ohio.....	4,500	(**)	39,307
Oklahoma.....	1,000	3,000	18,401
Oregon.....	1,400	(**)	7,466
Pennsylvania.....	5,954 ⁸	(⁹)	53,696
Rhode Island.....	300*	120*	3,572
South Dakota.....	About 20% of total or 1,600	About 40% of total or 3,200	8,000
Tennessee.....	2,619 ^{10*}	(**)	(**)
Texas ¹¹	5,000*	10,000*	36,488
Utah.....	344 ¹²	(**)	3,089
Vermont.....	350*	400*	2,867
Virginia ¹³	(**)	(**)	(**)
Washington.....	2,300*	4,600*	11,166
West Virginia.....	1,400	4,500	14,340
Wisconsin.....	Something less than 3,000 ¹⁴	8,000*	19,500

* Number is approximated. ** Data were not available.

⁶ Based on a study by Dr. S. E. Davis, President, State Normal College, Dillon. This number of teachers were imported from other states into Montana during the school year 1924-1925. There is so large a percentage of Montana's teaching population which belongs to the "floating" population that County and City Superintendents do not know whether teachers leave the profession or not.

⁷ 474 teachers were teaching school in Nevada for the first time in 1924-1925.

⁸ This represents the number of teachers who withdrew from school service for the year 1924-1925, as shown by records of the Pennsylvania School Employees' Retirement System, of which approximately 99 per cent of the teachers of the State are members.

⁹ Data on 44,999 of the 53,696 regularly employed teachers for 1924-1925 indicate that 1,377 were in their present position less than one year; and that 11,378 were in their present position, but less than two years. The increase in the number of teachers in Pennsylvania of 1924-1925 over 1923-1924 was 1,993.

¹⁰ Tennessee has approximately 2,600 teachers without previous experience each year.

¹¹ It is practically impossible to make even estimates of the number of teachers leaving the profession in Texas and those changing positions. The difficulty is enhanced in this state by the fact that the teachers are not compelled to report the fact of employment to keep their certificates in force.

¹² Represents number of teachers employed in Utah in 1924-1925 who had less than one year's teaching experience; 404 teachers employed in Utah in 1924-1925 had had only one year's teaching experience; 358 teachers had had only two years' teaching experience. In other words, approximately 36 per cent of the teachers in Utah in 1924-1925 had only two years' or less teaching experience. These data do not include Salt Lake City or Piute, San Juan and Alpine districts.

¹³ It is estimated that the teacher turnover in Virginia would be approximately 12 per cent of the high school teachers and 18 per cent of the elementary teachers.

¹⁴ About 3,000 new teachers are needed each year. There is no way of determining whether this number is leaving the field or not.

2. Is it the untrained teacher who drops out of the profession, and who has merely used teaching as a "stepping stone"?

3. What are the occupations into which these former teachers go?

4. Should not the married teacher, if she desires, be permitted to continue teaching, and thus help in the reduction of teacher turnover?

5. Why should thousands of teachers shift from one teaching position to another every year? How much of this turnover is due to the "spoils

system"? Would a single salary schedule as well as tenure legislation tend to reduce teacher turnover? How many teachers change from elementary to junior or senior high school work each year—not because they are more fitted for that work, but because it offers a larger salary?

6. How much has lack of training to do with teacher turnover?

7. Teacher turnover is greatest in rural communities. Will consolidation of schools, better salaries, and better living conditions for teachers help to reduce teacher turnover?

None of these questions can be answered with the data now at hand. They are questions which merit extensive study. One thing, however, does seem certain that where tenure legislation is in force, teacher turnover, due to political dismissals is reduced. Furthermore teachers are more apt to continue in a particular position if certainty of tenure during efficient service is assured them.

The following section presents the viewpoints of foremost writers in the field of teacher tenure on the subjects of teacher turnover, tenure legislation, and court decisions relative to teacher tenure.

A Review of Recent Literature on Teacher Tenure

(Facts and impressions gained from a review of books and magazine articles on the subject of teacher tenure published since 1920.)

The following statements represent a listing of opinion affecting teacher tenure which appears in recent literature on the subject. The inclusion of these statements does not, in every instance, mean that they are officially approved by the Committee on Tenure or by the National Education Association.

1. Teacher tenure is a subject of vital interest, judged from the large number of articles that have been published on this subject within the past six years.

2. In many sections of the country, teaching is a procession rather than a profession.

a. The Federal Commissioner of Education estimated the number of recruits needed for the rural teaching service in a single year (1918-19) as 130,000—an annual turnover of more than one in three.

b. In 1921, in rural schools only 30 percent of the teachers are re-elected annually. In Oregon, from 1900-1920, 70-90 percent of the rural teachers were new to the districts where they served; the average total teaching service was three years.

c. About 68 percent of the rural teachers of Wisconsin remain in the same school less than 1.5 years.

d. In New York State the average amount of service rendered on a teacher's certificate is 6.75 years.

e. Data for 1900-1910, relative to ten one-teacher schools in the foremost counties of Kentucky show that no teacher taught in any school during four consecutive sessions; only one teacher remained with a school during three consecutive years. The average consecutive tenure was 1.41 years

f. In 1925 the percentage of annual teacher replacement in Arizona was reported as 16 percent.

g. Teacher turnover is greater among elementary teachers than among secondary teachers. One writer questions, however, whether high-school teaching may be called a life-career when the average high-school teacher gives only six years' service.

h. A report published in 1923 gave the median tenure for city school superintendents in the United States as five years; in cities of less than 10,000 population, three years.

The results of frequent change in superintendents are often waste and a confused teaching staff.

3. Very different from the "hire and fire" system existing in the United States is the protection afforded teachers in foreign countries.

4. A transient teacher contributes less to a community than one who stays long enough to appreciate community needs and builds his life into the life of the community.

The manufacturer is able to estimate the financial loss to his business due to labor turnover because his output is a tangible product. The school's product is changes in the lives of boys and girls—a more intangible product which it is difficult to measure. There is no question, however, but that there is an inestimable loss in school efficiency each year due to teacher turnover. The first requisite in teaching is that the teacher shall really know the pupil. He cannot do this and change schools every year or two. *In rapid teacher turnover it is the child who suffers.* When teaching is a procession rather than a profession, the developing ideas, ideals, and attitudes of children are trampled underfoot.

These have been suggested as means of solving the tenure problem:

a. Minimum training for entrance to the teaching profession, four years of high school and at least two years of professional training.

b. A probation period of two or three years, following which teachers should have permanent tenure.

This makes tenure a reward, for faithful and efficient service, rather than a guaranteed legislative right for all. During the probationary period unsuccessful and incompetent teachers may be "weeded out."

c. Causes for dismissal clearly stated in writing.

The efficient teacher must be protected and the inefficient teacher eliminated.

d. The right of dismissal in the hands of the appointing power.

e. Due notice given the teacher in a case of dismissal.

f. Teachers granted right of hearing, counsel, and appeal.

g. In the case of permanent tenure, a system devised to insure improvement of the teaching staff.

This means that following the probationary period each teacher's services should be re-evaluated every 5 or 6 years. Teacher tenure should insure protection to both the teacher and the community. The community has a right to be protected against teachers who do not keep themselves intellectually alive and who do not carry on the duties of their office with an ever-increasing efficiency.

5. A practice of indefinite appointment protects teachers from political intrigue. It renders dismissal for petty, partisan, or personal reasons much more difficult. The movement for teacher tenure legislation is the result of the invasion by the "spoils system" of the teaching profession.

6. Systems of salary increases or retirement allowances are often rendered ineffective by the existing turnover in the teaching profession.

7. The tenure problem is closely allied with the matter of pensions, salaries, and the preparation of teachers.

8. In many instances teacher turnover is the result of one or more of these causes:

- a. Poor living conditions to which teachers are subjected.
- b. Absence of competent supervision.
- c. The difficulty of securing professional advancement among grade school teachers.
- d. Uncertainty of tenure.

9. Annual elections do not help in attracting first-class talent to the teaching profession. "During annual elections some of our best teachers have been blackmailed for insignificant reasons."

10. A survey of court cases shows that the verdict usually refers mainly to principles involved rather than the action of superintendent, school board, or teacher. The court's inquiry is based mostly upon the justice of the procedure in dismissal.

11. Decisions rendered in the courts of Oregon and West Virginia state that marriage does not constitute a legal cause for the dismissal of women teachers. Some writers do not consider marriage even when it involves a period of absence from the profession as being a hindrance to a woman continuing in the profession.

12. State teacher tenure laws have been enacted in California, Colorado, Illinois, Louisiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, Montana, New Jersey, New York, Oregon, and Wisconsin.

13. The general intent of all these laws seems to be to guarantee to teachers security of positions during good behavior and efficiency. The principal features in the present tenure laws are: (1) Probationary period of one to three years; (2) Specific cause for dismissal (in writing); a. misconduct; b. incompetence; c. evident unfitness for teaching; d. persistent violation of or refusal to obey State laws; e. insubordination; f. neglect of duty; g. malfeasance; (3) Hearing before the employing board; (4) Right of counsel for teacher; and (5) Reasonable notice of hearing or intention to prefer charges.

14. State-wide tenure legislation in all the States would do much to stabilize the teaching profession and make it more effective.

For a more complete discussion of many of these points see the carefully annotated bibliography which appears on pages 212 to 220 of this Report.

A Selected Annotated Bibliography on the Subject of Teacher Tenure

This bibliography has been prepared with extensive annotations, so that the busy educator or layman who does not find it possible to go back to the original articles will gain a clear notion of the facts and opinions relative to teacher tenure which have been published from 1920 to 1926.

The purpose of this bibliography is to present viewpoints of foremost writers in the field of teacher tenure and recent facts as to teacher turnover, tenure legislation, and court decisions in the various states. It represents a careful survey of literature on the subject of teacher tenure, published since 1920. The material is organized under these four headings: (1) General discussion of the Problem of Teacher Tenure; (2) Statistics Relative to Teacher Turnover; (3) Legislation and Court Decisions re Teacher Tenure; and (4) The Tenure Situation in Universities and Colleges.

General Discussion of the Problem of Teacher Tenure

Baker, R. H. "Lack of Tenure of Office a Factor in School Expenses." *American Board Journal*, Volume 72, May, 1926, p. 48.

Believes that the cost of teacher turnover devolves ultimately upon the public in the maintenance of employment agencies and the fact that much of a teacher's salary is given over to the cost of application for new positions. Argues that additional expense is incurred when the removal of a school official causes a change in the administrative program, and that a transient teacher contributes little to the wealth of the community.

Benson, Charles E. *The Output of Professional Schools for Teachers, 1922*. Warwick and York, Baltimore, Maryland, p. 88.

A study for evaluating the work of the teacher training institutions. Data obtained for approximately 100,000 graduates of 26 teacher training institutions gave the following results:

1. Whereas over one-half of the school children in the United States were enrolled in rural schools, only 8 percent of teacher training school graduates entered one-room rural school service.
2. Term of service for the general teaching population was from 4-5 years. Median term of service for two-year graduates was 9.5 years.
3. 84.6 percent of the graduates enter teaching the first year.

Bryant, W. M. Report of Committee on Teachers' Salaries and Term of Office. *Alabama School Journal*, Volume 42, May, 1925, pp. 17-18.

Recommends the encouragement of continued teacher tenure where satisfactory work is given in order that an element of permanence may be given to the term of office.

Cubberley, Ellwood P. *Public School Administration*. Chicago, Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1922, pp. 210-221.

Bases the cause of shortened teacher tenure on the plan of annual election, which renders the teaching position one of great uncertainty. Believes that the problem could be remedied by using more scientific means of appointment. "This condition is in part a tradition from early times and in part the result of a board of rapidly changing laymen attempting to exercise professional functions. They have not the professional insight to enable them to see far enough to plan and to carry out a consistent educational policy for the school." The tenure movement took its beginning from this situation. Takes stand that, "Life tenure for all efficient teachers there should be, but it should come as a deserved reward for faithful and efficient service, and not as a guaranteed legislative right to all." "Indefinite tenure suggested as the solution, in order that consideration may be given to the welfare of the children as well as that of the teacher." Due notice should be given the teacher and the matter should rest entirely with the Board of Education.

Some method of protection is especially needed for the supervisory officers who direct the administration in order that they may give effective service.

Educational Review, *The Effect of Permanent Tenure Upon School Efficiency*. Volume 66, December, 1923, pp. 285-286. (Editorial.)

Believes that in the case of permanent tenure some system must be devised to insure continued improvement of the teaching staff. "This lies in a periodical taking account of stock. If after the first few years of probation, the teachers should be subject to re-evaluation of their services every five or six years, they would have all the advantages of permanency without being tempted to settle back on their oars and drift with the tide."

Estenson, Emil. "The Importance of Tenure of Teaching Positions." *North Dakota Teacher*. Vol. 4, pp. 4-5, May, 1925.

Reports existing conditions regarding tenure, with particular reference to rural and small city schools, and declares large teacher turnover prevents both teacher and community from "realizing the increased returns on increased efficiency due to continuous employment," and hinders advancement of the teaching profession.

Ferguson, James. "The Tenure of Teachers." *National Education Association Addresses and Proceedings*, 1920. Volume 58, pp. 158-160.

Considers any system of salary increases or retirement allowances as rendered ineffective by the existing turnover in the teaching profession. Points out as two main defects of the present school system, the failure to protect the efficient teacher and the absence of means of eliminating the inefficient.

Suggests as a remedy, the raising of standards for appointment of teachers, a program of competent and effective supervision, and the awarding of permanent certificates only after a period of probation has been served.

Hunter, Fred M. *Report of the Committee of One Hundred on the Problem of Tenure*. National Education Association, Washington, D. C., 1924.

States the following objectives of the Committee of One Hundred on the Problem of Tenure:

1. To ascertain the need for greater permanency of tenure.
2. To study legislation already enacted and rules and regulations established regarding teacher tenure.
3. To ascertain the results of such legislation and rules and regulations.
4. To ascertain the attitude of the teaching body and lay public in regard to the problem.
5. To develop a statement of standards existing within the profession and on the part of the lay public for merit in the teaching profession.
6. To make recommendations upon basis of findings as to desirable legislation and rules and regulations for boards of education.

Presents a comprehensive treatment of the tenure problem in the United States. A survey shows that approximately 110,560 teachers are needed annually in the United States to fill positions vacated. In many states this situation seems to be aggravated by political intrigue. State tenure laws have been enacted for California, Colorado, Illinois, Louisiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, Montana, New Jersey, New York, Oregon, and Wisconsin.

"The general intent of all the laws seems to be to guarantee to teachers a security in their positions during good behavior and efficiency. The principal features in the present tenure laws are:

1. A probationary period—1 to 3 years.
2. A hearing before the employing board.
3. Right of counsel for teachers,

4. Specific cause for dismissal (in writing).
 - a. Misconduct.
 - b. Incompetence.
 - c. Evident unfitness for teaching.
 - d. Persistent violation of or refusal to obey State Laws.
 - e. Insubordination.
 - f. Neglect of duty.
 - g. Malfeasance.
5. Reasonable notice of hearing or intention to prefer charges.

The customary requirements for granting of permanent employment are: Certification, definite standards of professional attainment, length of service, and efficiency.

Hunter, Fred M. "Tenure for Teachers." *Journal of the National Education Association*, Vol. XIV, December, 1925, pp. 271-273.

Favors the principle of definite teacher tenure during efficiency and good behavior because of the benefit resulting to the teaching profession, and the efficiency of the respective school systems. Believes that a practice of indefinite appointment will protect the teachers from political intrigue. Commends the tenure law operating in New Jersey. Contrasts the "hire and fire" system existing in the United States with the protection afforded teachers in foreign countries.

Indiana Teacher. *What is Tenure?* Vol. 70, p. 17. February, 1920.

Brief editorial on tenure as a protection to the school system, because it provides for a probationary period during which incompetent and unsuccessful teachers may be "weeded out"; and protection to the teacher who has passed the probationary period, because it renders dismissal for petty, partisan or personal reasons much more difficult. Type of tenure law favored by which teacher is entitled to a written statement of alleged reasons for, and public hearing prior to proposed discharge, discharge becoming automatically effective on failure of teacher to appear at such hearing.

Kandel, Issac L. "Tenure of Service of Teachers." *Teachers College Record*, Volume XXVI, October, 1924, pp. 127-144.

General practice leaves the appointment and dismissal of teachers in the hands of local school authorities. This has laid the profession open to the "spoils system." Careful selection of teachers rather than reliance upon some means of dismissing those incompetent seems the basis for building up a stable efficient staff.

Objects to permanent tenure as making the teacher's position too strong. Believes that the real problem is that of deciding "by what standards incompetency or conduct unbecoming a teacher shall be measured." Does not consider that tenure protection can be extended to superintendents.

The situation in cities shows a practice of one-year appointment. Teachers in cities of Massachusetts, New York and New Jersey are protected by state tenure laws. Only 22 out of 295 cities throughout the United States covered in a survey had a tenure law in effect.

Suggest principles of appointment, term of probation, rating of teachers, etc., as related to the tenure problem.

National Education Association, "Facts on the Cost of Public Education and What They Mean." *Bulletin One* of the Research Department, June, 1922, "Tenure of Office for Teachers." pp. 60-62.

Two tables showing status of tenure legislation. One table gives summary of tenure laws. Another table lists 74 cities, grouped according to population and shows whether or not they have tenure laws.

National Education Association. "Facts on State Educational Needs." *Research Bulletin*, Vol. I, No. 1, January, 1923, pp. 54-57.

Suggests that enactment by states of sound teacher tenure legislation increases public school efficiency and protects the welfare of children of the state by providing for the "weeding out" of the incompetent teacher and by encouraging the continuance in the profession of the competent teacher. Contains tables giving digest of state tenure laws and results of survey of tenure and transiency of teachers in Oregon. Presents Pennsylvania Tenure Bill as an example of tenure legislation.

National Education Association, *First Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence*. February, 1923. "The Tenure of Office of the Superintendent of Schools." pp. 110.

A study of tenure conditions among superintendents based on information obtained from educational directories of the U. S. Bureau of Education. Range in tenure of office found to be from one to forty years with median tenure of five years in cities of less than 10,000 population, reported as only three years. Includes tables on length of terms, and length of contracts of superintendents. Recommends that selection of superintendents be made on basis of adequate personal qualifications, preparation, and educational experience; that original employment be for three years, to be followed, if concluded satisfactorily, by term of three to five additional years; that recall of superintendents may be voted by board of education to become effective six months after notification and that a release may be voted by board in response to petition of the superintendent.

National Education Association, "Five questions for American Education Week." *Research Bulletin*, Vol. I, No. 4, September, 1923, p. 292.

Recommends adoption of tenure measures in order that school systems may be strengthened by guaranteeing continued employment to capable teachers. In relation to the tenure of school superintendents, this Bulletin suggests that lack of continuity, waste and a confused teaching staff are probably results of frequent change in superintendents; and that school boards do all in their power to retain the services of successful superintendents for a reasonable period of time.

National Education Association. *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association*. The Problem of Teacher Tenure. Volume II, No. 5, November, 1924, pp. 137-178.

A reprint of the 1924 Report of the Committee of One Hundred on the Problem of Teacher Tenure, Fred M. Hunter, chairman, together with additional material on the subject of teacher tenure.

New Republic. "Extending the Teachers' Tenure," Volume 37, January 9, 1924, pp. 163-164.

Believes that a reform in tenure will handle the serious problem of securing economy and efficiency in the teaching profession. Does not consider marriage even when it involves a period of absence from the profession as being a hindrance to a woman continuing in the profession.

Seerley, Homer H. *The American Teacher*. United States Bureau of Education, Department of Interior, Washington, D. C., Bulletin 44, 1922, pp. 3-4.

Believes that a system of permanent tenure cannot be established where there is necessary a continued adjustment of demands and services. The instability of the profession believed to be a result of the constant struggle for promotion and the attempt to eliminate the inefficient teachers who have gained entrance to the school systems.

Spooner, Julia A. "The Classroom Teacher—Tenure." *Christian Science Monitor*, April 19, 1926.

Suggests these as reasons why the annual teacher turnover is so great:

1. Many enter the profession with no definite intention of remaining in it.
2. Some are drifters and finding teaching arduous, go into other lines of work.

3. Others are the victims of neighborhood criticism and the spoils system of local school boards.

The first requests for tenure laid down these four points as the basis for a solution of the problem:

1. Probationary period for beginning teachers.
2. Written and signed statement of the complaint upon which dismissal is based.
3. Notice of dismissal given long enough before the end of the term to make it possible for the teacher to secure another position.
4. The teacher given a chance to be heard in her own defense upon the complaint made.

Tenure legislation protects both the teacher and the school board.

More unfit teachers have been held in service through personal friendships, political influence, family prestige or supervisory negligence than tenure will ever be used to protect. Many unfit teachers remain on the pay rolls in cities where tenure laws are in operation, but they are there in spite of tenure, not because of tenure.

Swain, Joseph. "Preliminary Report on the Tenure of Teachers." *National Education Association Addresses and Proceedings*, 1922, Volume 60, pp. 147-154.

Considers the tenure problem closely allied with the matter of pensions, salaries and the professional preparation of teachers. Shows that the problem extends beyond the classroom teacher, as the median tenure of superintendents is less than three years, and as two thirds of the principalships in some states are vacant each year. While only five states—California, Massachusetts, Montana, New Jersey, and Oregon recognize the principle of permanent teacher tenure, the uncertainty caused by the one-term appointment practiced among the states decreases the possibility of stabilizing the teaching profession.

Van de Water, Marjorie. "Why Teachers are Transients." *American School Board Journal*. Volume 72, May, 1926, p. 42.

A discussion of teacher turnover as caused by living conditions, absence of competent supervision, and the difficulty of securing professional advancement among grade school teachers. Suggests that the consolidated school might provide opportunity for teacher apprenticeship.

Watkins, Isabel. "Tenure of Principals and Superintendents in South Carolina." *South Carolina Education*. Vol. 6, pp. 9-11, March 1, 1925.

A study of tenure of 1335 principals and superintendents in relation to size of salary, size of school, and location in counties. Significant correlation between tenure and size of salary found only in five counties ranking highest and five ranking lowest with regard to tenure. Greater correlation discovered between tenure and size of school. Conditions in the small rural school, promotion from smaller to larger schools, and uncertainty of tenure are causes assigned for large turnover.

Williams, Charl O. "Report of the Committee on Tenure." *National Education Association Addresses and Proceedings*, 1921. Volume 59, pp. 145-155.

Recognizes teacher tenure as a factor in the question of salaries, certification, and pensions. An inquiry of 1920 showed that only in 22 cities out of 295

having a population of over 8000 were the teachers protected by state tenure laws. Early dissatisfaction with a system of annual elections appear: "Annual elections do not attract first class talent to the profession." "During annual elections some of our best teachers have been black-balled for insignificant reasons."

Article concludes:

1. Schools may guard against incompetency by requiring a three-year probationary period before giving indefinite appointment.
2. Power of dismissal should be in the hands of the Board.
3. The first hearing of a teacher's cause should be private, with the appeal private, or public, as desired by the teacher.
4. Suggested plans for insuring continued professional improvement such as: sabbatical leave, requirement by law, salary increase for academic attendance, etc.

Statistics Relative to Teacher Turnover

Almack, John C. "The Problem of Teacher Tenure." *American School Board Journal*, Volume 63, November, 1921, pp. 29-30.

Points out the relation of the tenure problem to the matter of supervision, rating, improvement in service, salary schedules and living conditions. "In rural schools in the United States only 30 percent of the teachers are re-elected annually. In Oregon, from 1900-1920, 70-90 percent of the rural teachers were new to the districts where they served; the average total teaching service was three years."

Groups the causes for turnover as economic, political, professional, individual and social. Suggests as means of solving the tenure problem:

1. The minimum training for entrance to the teaching profession should be four years of high school and at least two years of professional training.
2. Two to three year probation period with chance for work under different principals.
3. Permanent appointment for teachers, principals, and supervisors.
4. Requirements as to improvement in service.
5. Clear, definite statement of causes for dismissal.
6. Right of dismissal should be with the appointing power.
7. Right of hearing, counsel and appeal.
8. Adoption of standards of rating.

Anderson, C. I. *The Status of Teachers in Wisconsin*. 1923, 156 p., Dept. of Public Instruction, Madison, Wisconsin.

A detailed report of the training, experience and compensation of Wisconsin teachers, with the tenure situation in the several groups discussed.

Presents data showing that about 68 percent of rural teachers in Wisconsin remained in the same school less than 15 years. "This is a serious handicap to the rural schools of the state. The rural child with his eight months of the school year and in attendance only three-fourths of the time; with his poor surroundings, taught by an immature girl not old enough to vote, with a meager academic and professional training, is under a serious enough handicap without adding to it the necessity of becoming acquainted with a new teacher each year, one not only strange to the pupil, but unacquainted with the school and the community."

Chapter 40, Sec. 41 of the Wisconsin school law attempted to remedy this situation by granting state aid to school districts retaining a teacher for more than one year. ("If such teacher shall be retained for and shall have successfully taught such school during a second year, \$2.00 per month for each month of such year during which the school maintained in such district is taught by such teacher; if for a third year, four dollars for each such month; and if for a fourth, or any succeeding year, \$8.00 for each such month.") The statute had little or no effect, although \$42,000 was paid out to teachers in premiums under a sub-section.

For elementary teachers the median of tenure was below two years, and for high schools, the median tenure is two years for schools with less than ten teachers. "This is a situation that merits the serious attention of those who plan school policies. Teachers should be retained in the same communities for longer periods. Their restlessness is no doubt due in some measure to the fact that in any given school they reach the maximum of the salary schedule in a relatively short time. They reach the maximum in salary much earlier than they reach the maximum in efficiency. Schedules should provide for smaller increases during the apprenticeship period. Statutes providing for permanency of tenure after a probationary period would also aid."

Bonner, H. R. "Salary Outlook for High School Teachers." *School Review*, Volume 30, June, 1922, p. 414-423.

Questions as to whether high-school teaching may be called a life career when the average high school teacher gives only six-years service. The average teacher receives a beginning annual salary of \$1297, and the outlook is less than a 30 percent increase, as the average salary of 69,358 high school teachers in 1921 was \$1678. The outlook for men was for an increase of 29.3 percent and for women 27 percent.

Cooper, H. E. *Cost of Teacher Training*. 1924 Baltimore, Warwick and York, 112 pp.

Chapter VI discusses the number of teachers needed annually, and the amount of service rendered by certificated teachers.

Found that the State of New York filled 53,000 different positions and issued 8000 certificates annually. The average amount of service rendered on a certificate is 6.75 years.

Crabbe, A. L. "A Study in Teacher Transiency." *Peabody Journal of Education*, Volume 1, May, 1924, pp. 295-300.

Gives data for 1900-1910 relative to ten one-teacher schools in the foremost counties of Kentucky. Tables show with regard to tenure: that no teacher taught in any school during four consecutive sessions; only one teacher remained with a school during three consecutive years. The average consecutive tenure was 1.41 years.

Did not discover any special influence of salary upon teacher tenure. "Twenty-five cases of successive tenure existed at an average yearly increase of \$25.12. There were fifteen cases of transfer to another school at an average increase of \$35.73. It is hardly probable that ten dollars a year would cause such a pronounced nomadic tendency. To cure these defects, three things are necessary: Public opinion, money, and training."

Deffenbaugh, W. S. *Administration of Schools in the Smaller Cities*, U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 2, 1922, pp. 50-53.

Annual election seems to be the custom. In 121 of 528 cities, election is for a probationary term of from 1-3 years. In 109 of these 121, permanent tenure follows the apprenticeship.

In the 528 cities, 975 teachers or 3.25 percent of the 30,000 employed for 1921 were not reelected.

Suggests that election be made for three years. Each teacher should receive notice of unsatisfactory work, and be given a time in which to demonstrate improvement. Removal should be in the hands of the board of education and should be possible at the end of a school year for teachers on probation; for those on permanent tenure, dismissal should be for cause. Preference seems to be given private hearings.

Hansen, G. S. "The Teachers' Procession." *The Arizona Teacher and Home Journal*, Volume XIII, January, 1925, pp. 24-25.

Gives the percentage of annual teacher replacement in Arizona as 16 percent. Believes that the "Teachers can go far toward creating greater permanency [in the profession] by not becoming 'tramp teachers,'" i. e. those who are constantly shifting their location to secure the novelty afforded by change.

Hunter, Fred M. "Teacher Tenure in Colleges and Normal Schools," National Education Association, *Addresses and Proceedings*, 1925, Volume 63, pp. 220-237.

A report of an inquiry sent to presidents of all State public normal schools and teachers' colleges in the United States. The summary of the prevailing practice shows that:

1. In the majority of teachers colleges and state public normal schools, teachers are appointed for one year terms.
2. Of the teachers colleges and state public normal schools reporting, in practically none are teachers protected by a state law relative to tenure, and in only a few instances are they protected by a ruling of the state Board of Education.
3. The teacher turnover in the colleges reporting for 1922 was 14 percent of the number employed, 11 percent in 1923, and 8.5 percent in 1924.
4. The teacher turnover in the state public normal schools reporting for 1922 was 19 percent, for 1923, 17 percent, and 12 percent for 1924.

Keith, John A. H., and Bagley, W. C. *The Nation and the Schools*. Macmillan Company, 1920, 323 pp.

A chapter "The Weakest Links" treats the problem of the rural school teacher and the attitude of the public toward the service of the public schools. Finds that "The rural school teachers are transient in their calling." The Federal Commissioner of Education estimated the number of recruits needed for this service (rural teaching) in a single year (1918-19) as 130,000, an annual "turnover" of more than one in three. In one of the most prosperous of the middle western states, the Bureau of Education reports the average term of service of the rural school teacher not to be more than two years.

Believes that many of the problems, such as inadequate salary and low professional standards, are a result of the tradition that "the actual work of classroom teaching is not a serious and permanent occupation."

Legislation and Court Decisions re Teacher Tenure

Edwards, I. N. "Marriage as a Legal Cause for Dismissal of Women Teachers." *The Elementary School Journal*, Volume XXV, May, 1925, pp. 692-695.

According to decisions rendered in the courts of Oregon and West Virginia, marriage does not constitute a legal cause for the dismissal of women teachers, providing that the teacher did not obtain her contract with misrepresentation of her status. The grounds for dismissal enumerated (such as inefficiency,

immorality, neglect of duty) in teachers' contracts were interpreted as not being applicable in the case of marriage. An interesting view of the matter appears in one statement: "Courts refuse to enforce or recognize certain classes of acts because against public policy on the grounds that they are injurious to the interests of the State. A contract in restraint of marriage is of this nature."

There is not yet sufficient evidence on record to render decisions authoritative concerning the absence of married teachers for the purpose of giving birth to a child. In one case in court, this act was considered a "neglect of duty," therefore "due grounds for dismissal."

Hall, William. "The Tenure of Teachers." *American School Board Journal*, Volume 65, October, 1922, pp. 106, 117-118.

A discussion of tenure with reference to a bill presented to the Minnesota State Legislature. Length of tenure considered necessary to an efficient school system. Some permanence of service is necessary for a teacher to increase his efficiency. Believes that the teacher might reduce his efforts toward improvement after the period of his probation is over. Considers the charge of inefficiency indefinite, and discusses critically the causes for dismissal presented in the bill. Believes that were the teaching profession made attractive by salaries offered the tenure problem would be solved.

Housman, Ida E. "Tenure Once More." *Educational Review*, Volume 68, October, 1924, pp. 118-122.

The movement for teacher tenure legislation is the result of the invasion by the spoils system of the teaching profession. Requisites of good tenure laws are these: indefinite tenure; state-wide operation; presence of a system of effective certification; a three-year probationary period; scientific rating systems; salary and promotion schedules based on experience and professional improvement; a fair dismissal procedure; 60 days' notice when teacher is dismissed or resigns; long terms of office for superintendents.

Survey of court cases show that the verdict refers mainly to principle involved rather than the action of superintendent, school board, or teacher.

Indiana Teacher, Should the Indiana Legislature Favor Teacher Tenure? Volume 69, No. 6, p. 20, Feb., 1925.

Cites random cases to illustrate the possibilities under the present plan of teacher employment and urges that the Legislature give a careful consideration to the question of teacher tenure from the standpoint of its effect upon the efficiency of teaching.

Contains chart showing states which have no teacher tenure law, those which have a law of state wide application, and states having a law applicable to three or less large cities.

Indiana Teacher, Benefits of Tenure, Volume 70, No. 2, p. 24, October, 1925.

An editorial giving a brief history of teacher tenure legislation in the state of Indiana. Contains summary of benefits of school tenure listed by the tenure committee of the National Education Association.

Indiana Teacher, Superintendents for Tenure, Volume 70, No 5, p. 17, January, 1926.

Reports a resolution adopted by Illinois City Superintendents' Association, favoring the enactment of a law providing a more permanent tenure for teachers and superintendents,

*REPORT OF LEGISLATIVE COMMISSION
NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION*

GEORGE D. STRAYER, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY,
NEW YORK CITY, CHAIRMAN

The legislative program of the National Education Association has been advanced during the past year. We command today a larger measure of support for our cause, both in Congress and in the several states and localities throughout the nation than we have ever had before.

In her report of the work of the Legislative Division, Charl Ormond Williams, Field Secretary of the National Education Association, records the fact that the national organizations supporting the Education Bill have again registered their overwhelming approval of our program for the creation of a Department of Education with a Secretary in the President's Cabinet. It is most encouraging to report this consistent support of our Bill by these lay organizations. It is a pleasure to commend the work of our Field Secretary, who has so ably presented our program to the organizations supporting the Bill.

Never before in the history of this movement have we had so adequate an expression for the need of the establishment of a Department of Education as was recorded before the Committees of the House and of the Senate at the joint hearing held in Washington during the latter part of February. The record of this hearing has been so much in demand throughout the United States that the Committees of Congress have had a maximum number of copies printed in order that they might supply their constituents with the record that was there made.

The Chairman of the House Committee, Congressman Daniel A. Reed, in a statement made on May 5th, indicated clearly the work which lies ahead of us when he said:

It is evident that sentiment is much stronger for the bill in its present form than it was as originally introduced and, in my opinion, it will be increasingly stronger as its provisions are studied and better understood. Between now and December, 1926, each member of the House will have an opportunity to ascertain the sentiment in his district and he will be in a position to register accurately the will of his constituents when he returns.

In another communication to our Field Secretary, Congressman Reed said:

After talking with many members of Congress, including some of the leaders, I am satisfied that there is more favorable sentiment for the Curtis-Reed Bill than at any time since this measure has been before Congress. It is perfectly evident

that there is a growing sentiment in favor of this legislation, and the one thing that will have to be demonstrated in order to insure early and favorable consideration of the bill is a sentiment "back home" favorable to it.

It is our job to see that our representatives are informed. They must be made to understand why the profession is supporting the Curtis-Reed Bill. Nothing less than a personal discussion of the matter with Senators and Representatives can be counted upon to do the job. We must go over its provisions with them section by section. When this is done there can be no doubt with respect to our purpose to serve the children of the United States through the work to be accomplished by the Department. It will be equally certain that a review of the measure will make it clear to our representatives that the Bill does not in any of its provisions make possible any interference with the control, administration or supervision of our schools by the duly constituted state and local education authorities.

In order to accomplish the results which Congressman Reed has proposed it will be necessary to have the full cooperation of state and local education associations throughout the nation. It is only as you teachers, principals, and superintendents of schools, thoroughly believing in the importance of our cause, present it for the consideration of laymen and in cooperation with them bring the matter to the attention of our representatives, that the campaign can be won. The Legislative Commission is asking that additional help be provided in our Washington office in order to cooperate with state and local associations in developing the organization which will carry on the campaign of education. We recommend as well that this program of education be further developed by furnishing to the press of the United States an adequate discussion of the Bill before Congress and of the purposes which we seek to accomplish.

Education is the most important of all governmental functions of Democracy. The federal government is already engaged in many activities which are intended to improve and develop our system of public schools. Efficiency and economy demand that these activities be coordinated in a single department, under the leadership of one who will sit at the Cabinet table.

There is no matter of domestic concern or of foreign policy that is not, in the last analysis, dependent upon the work of the schools. No one of less than Cabinet rank is in position to represent education in the Councils of the Nation.

Our Government has long been committed to the policy of promoting the welfare of the people through the conduct of research and the dissemination of information. Scientific inquiry, as conducted by the Depart-

ments of Agriculture, Commerce, and Labor, have added greatly to our material prosperity. Research in education is essential to the development of public education throughout the United States.

Our practice constantly lags behind our knowledge. The reason is easy to discover. We have no agency in the United States sufficiently supported to enable it to bring together the results of successful practice, of systematic experimentation and of scientific research. We seek to have the Department of Education supported by an annual appropriation of \$1,500,000 in order that we may make available to Boards of Education, to superintendents of schools and to teachers the results of researches wherever they are conducted and of successful practice wherever developed. Every child in every school in the land will benefit by the work to be undertaken by the Department of Education operating as a fact-finding and fact-distributing agency.

Your Legislative Commission believes that the members of this representative assembly are convinced of the wisdom of and the necessity for the legislative program embodied in the Curtis-Reed Bill. We urge you and your colleagues in the local and state associations throughout the United States to organize a systematic campaign of education in order that the public may know our purposes as expressed in the Bill and in order that they may be disabused of the misconceptions which are so widely spread.

The American people believe in their public schools. They will overwhelmingly support any program which they believe will increase the efficiency of this, the greatest of all of our public institutions. We have confidence in the outcome of our program because we know that our proposals are sound. We shall continue to work for the welfare of our schools and of the children enrolled in them until our program is enacted into law.

*REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON STANDARDS, RE-
QUIREMENTS AND CREDITS OF TEACHERS
IN THE SERVICE*

JOSEPH ROSIER, PRESIDENT, STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, FAIRMONT, W. VA.
CHAIRMAN

This Committee has undertaken to make inquiry concerning the standards which are set up for admission to the teaching profession in different parts of our country and to learn to what extent various requirements are made of teachers in the service to hold their positions and to secure

advancement and also to find out what credits are granted to teachers in the service for experience in teaching, extension and correspondence courses, and committee and project work done under the direction of supervisory authorities.

Standards For Teaching

Taking our country as a whole, our inquiries show that it is quite easy for young men and women to secure admission to the ranks of the teaching profession. In practically all of the states there are systems of examinations provided by law through which applicants may be certificated to teach. It was probably true twenty-five years ago that a majority of the teachers in the elementary schools of the country were certificated to teach by this method. There has been a gradual change in this respect in recent years and it is now provided by law in practically all of the states that applicants may be certificated on a basis of the completion of courses in normal schools and colleges. Short term certificates may be renewed by the completion of reading circle courses, correspondence and extension courses, and by attendance at accredited summer schools. This change in the method of certificating teachers has brought about a greater emphasis upon the whole system of credits which is used to estimate the progress of teachers either through work done while in service or by attendance at school or college in summer vacations, evening and Saturday classes and in various forms of extension work. Naturally, we have found a great variety of plans for encouraging and evaluating the many kinds of work which is required of teachers in the service. In most of the larger cities of the country the school authorities accept credits from all standard educational institutions at face value. When any doubt arises as to the value of credits the applicant is required to have such credits evaluated by the accrediting agencies of the state university. Very few of the school systems of the country or state departments of education act as accrediting agencies. In Kansas City the school authorities state that some years ago they were compelled to evaluate experience and certain types of examination. In substance it amounted to this, that teachers who were in the system at the time the rule on scholarship was passed, were allowed credit of three hours per year for experience, not to exceed ten years, or a total of thirty hours. These grants of credit were temporary, applying to teachers in service in Kansas City at the time the rule was passed. They were evidently intended to apply only to teachers already employed in the system and did not apply to teachers that were coming into the system at the time this regulation was passed, or subsequently. This same school system reports an interesting plan by which credits are allowed for travel. This type of credit is not evaluated by standard accrediting institutions. The method of evaluating travel credits is briefly this: For travel in America, fifteen hours is allowed. In order to obtain the maximum a teacher must have spent at least thirty weeks in travel; that is, travel credit does

not exceed one hour for two weeks of travel in America; also, the maximum credit that can be allowed for travel in any one state such as California or Colorado, etc., is five hours, so that travel may be fairly well distributed over the United States. At least three hours for six weeks must be done on the Pacific coast or in Pacific coast states and three hours for six weeks on the Atlantic coast or in Atlantic coast states. In regard to foreign travel, a credit of one hour per week is allowed for time actually spent in foreign countries, with the restriction that not more than five hours credit will be allowed for travel in any one country.

There are a number of city school systems in the country where a good many teachers are admitted to the schools as cadet teachers following their graduation from high school. Many of these serve as cadets for a year or two at a low salary, or with no salary. These cadet teachers are encouraged to pursue courses of study in study clubs and extension classes and under private tutors and supervisors. They are allowed junior college credit for such work. Such credits are nominally based on entrance examinations. The chief purpose of these grants is to enable teachers who have for a long time done excellent work in the system, to obtain at an earlier date the salary provided in the schedules in Kansas City. This junior college work includes all credits given for experience, entrance examinations, professional examinations and also all examinations for any form of city certificate whether for high school, elementary school or principalship; all examinations for state life certificates; also, regular courses in state normal schools and in state teachers colleges leading to a state life certificate.

Our inquiries disclose the fact that a great many city and local school systems have their own regulations concerning the requirements of their teachers and also their own plan for estimating the work done by their teachers. In most parts of the country the state school department is the supreme authority in the matter of certification of teachers in all parts of the state school system. In many of the state departments, however, in the matter of evaluating, all forms of credit are either referred to the state university or the teachers colleges located in the state. The tendency seems to be in the direction of placing the responsibility for the standards of teaching in the hands of those institutions to which the state has intrusted the responsibility for teacher training. It would appear that in a few years the national standards for teaching will be the completion of a four-year college course beyond the senior high school for junior and senior high school teaching, and the completion of a two-year training course beyond the completion of a senior high school course for elementary teaching. In many school systems a considerable percentage of teachers have not yet reached this standard of preparation. This is especially true of rural teachers in most parts of the country. Your Committee is of the opinion that the establishing of the standards of teaching is one of the biggest problems confronting the directors of public education in our

country today. It is entirely too easy for young men and women to secure admission to the teaching ranks. We may well look forward to the time when there will not be an elementary teacher in the entire country who has not had two years of special preparation for teaching beyond graduation from a senior high school, and there are those who confidently look forward to the time when all of the more progressive school systems of the country will require four years of training beyond the high school course for elementary teaching. The training for high school teaching is also a big problem in the high schools of the country and much attention is being given to standards of preparation for such teaching. School administrators are finding that the mere completion of a college course is not an adequate preparation for high school teaching. In many parts of the country high school teachers are required either to have a specialized college course directed toward such teaching, or a special course of training following the completion of the usual four-year college course.

Much can be done toward advancing the standards of teaching by state departments of education, and state governing boards, and by normal schools and teachers colleges, and by the administrators of city school systems, and by local school authorities. But, there ought to be a general movement among the masses of classroom teachers throughout the country for the elevation of teaching standards. If we are to have a teaching profession in this country it must be based upon the adequate training and professional knowledge and skill of those who do the actual classroom teaching. The great majority of elementary and high school teachers of the country are ambitious and willing to meet the requirements which are imposed upon them. These requirements will be accepted with greater willingness and there would be a much broader cooperation in meeting them if there is a widespread feeling that such standards have been set up by the teachers themselves. Teachers should realize the fact that we cannot have a real teaching profession as long as such a large proportion of teachers as we now have is below the reasonable standards which are now fixed by the more progressive communities.

Credits For Experience In Teaching

A wide inquiry concerning the matter of credits for experience in teaching discloses the fact that most of the accrediting institutions of the country are opposed to this form of recognition. In many parts of the country salary increases are based upon length of service and a certain amount of credit evaluation by local school authorities is granted for experience in fixing salaries. In many normal schools and teachers colleges a certain amount of credit towards admission is allowed for teaching experience and teachers' certificates and reading circle work. The registrar of one of the state universities states that his university does not give any advanced credit toward graduation for teaching experience and he says further, that this is true of all of the state universities. Three or four years

ago a study of this subject was made by the Iowa State Teachers College. It showed what schools were giving credit for teaching experience and what schools were not. At that time two state universities were giving a small amount of credit for experience which was carefully safeguarded. It was found that in a number of institutions candidates for degrees or diplomas may be excused from certain required courses on account of their experience in teaching.

The registrar of a state normal school writes that his institution now grants ten term hours of credit for experience in teaching and will probably continue to do so for a time. He assigns as a reason for discontinuing this practice that the work outlined in the normal schools is none too much for the thorough preparation of the student, and in granting credit for experience desirable courses are eliminated.

The representative of one of the leading institutions in the country for the training of teachers says that any question of credit for teaching experience is a sore one. He says further, that in eight years of experience in handling college credits and transcripts, he is led to the conclusion that this sort of credit cannot be safely and fairly allowed. The representative of another prominent teacher training institution says that the problem of giving recognition in the way of credits for work done in the profession, is one of the most troublesome questions that confront accrediting agencies. He does not think that much can be accomplished at the present time in dealing in a constructive way with this problem. He says that it is difficult enough to develop approved lists of institutions, let alone to develop approved cities or city superintendents, which would almost be necessary if credits toward graduation were given for work done under supervision by teachers in the service. A dean of a state university in answer to an inquiry about this problem says that it might well receive careful consideration. In some cases he says this credit would be entirely justifiable and desirable, but in others it would seem to be very undesirable. If a teacher learns by experience he says he would be glad to grant him credit for what he has learned, but in some cases the teacher merely gets into a rut from which it is almost impossible to pull him. Teachers, he says, have the feeling that we should give them credit in proportion to the number of years they have taught. He does not believe that this can be done with success. He says, further, if there is any way of finding out what the teacher has learned by his experience, that he would be glad to give him credit for it. This dean also states that it is the practice of his university to allow credit on experience for admission to the institution. He does not know that this is the best practice but he is in favor of continuing it until he can learn some better way of evaluating teaching experience.

The director of elementary education in one of the leading state universities states that he does not think it is possible to do much concerning the criticism that credit shall be allowed for successful teaching under supervision. That question, he says, was studied in detail a little while ago by

the universities and it was generally agreed as a result of this study, that no such credit be granted. There are two elements in the case which make it difficult to do anything about it. In the first place such teachers are receiving presumably a satisfactory wage for the service. In the second place it is almost impossible to discover any standards by which the measuring of the work can be done. Rating of teachers and supervisors are both too unscientific at the present moment to evaluate such credits.

The state board of education in one of the states reporting, authorizes the normal schools and teachers colleges under its supervision to grant a certain amount of admission credit on experience, reading circle work, and teachers' certificates granted on the basis of examinations. And this same board also authorizes these teacher training institutions to grant as much as ten semester hours of credit on the college courses for successful teaching experience.

The data rendered on this subject is by no means complete and does not represent all parts of the country but it shows rather conclusively that the universities and higher institutions of the country are opposed to allowing any college credit for teaching experience of any sort and that they are not kindly disposed toward any plan for allowing credit towards degrees for any sort of committee work or school project enterprises that may be carried on by teachers under the direction of educational supervisors. Pretty generally the normal schools and teachers colleges of the country which have been allowing some of this sort of credit, are seeking to eliminate it. There are a few states and institutions, the inquiry shows, that are still allowing a small amount of advanced credit for teaching experience. There are a good many normal schools and teachers colleges which allow such credit as a basis for admission.

Requirements of Teachers in the Service

Our investigation brings out the fact that owing to the low standards which prevail in practically all parts of the country for admission to the work of teaching, the administrative authorities in states and cities have devised all sorts of requirements to be imposed upon teachers for the purpose of making up deficiencies in training and preparation. This appears to be one of the most vexatious problems in our school systems as it affects the relation of classroom teachers and administrative authorities. Teachers are granted certificates on the basis of uniform state examinations or upon examinations given by the educational authorities in local communities without any regard to the background of academic and professional attainments. Most of the school systems of the country are struggling with measures for the improvement of teachers who have come into the service by various routes other than that of scholarly and adequate preparation. A majority of the states in the union have outlined professional reading circle courses for teachers and such courses are impressed upon teachers who are lacking in professional knowledge. The summer courses in

the teachers colleges and universities are crowded with thousands of teachers who are being required by administrative authorities to pursue such courses of study to supplement their original meager training. Many of the educational institutions are giving correspondence courses which are taken largely by teachers who are striving to meet requirements that are being made of them. In many parts of the country evening and Saturday classes carried on under the direction of the teachers colleges and universities, are largely attended by teachers who, under supervisional compulsion are seeking to earn degrees or to reach certain professional and academic standards that have been fixed. It is the opinion of your committee that those who have the responsibility for certificating teachers would better serve the profession by fixing higher standards of scholarship and professional skill for those who make their first entrance into the work of teaching, rather than to devise so many plans for the enforced improvement of inadequately prepared teachers who have been permitted to enter upon teaching without the preparation that they should have had.

Reciprocity Among the States

An interesting problem connected with the requirements for the certification of teachers came out as a result of this inquiry in connection with the difficulties that are encountered by teachers who go from one state to another where they apply for certification. This inquiry discloses the fact that there are practically no reciprocal relations among the states of the union in regard to this matter. It is frankly stated by those reporting from some of the states that the certificating authorities intentionally make it difficult for teachers coming from others states to secure teaching certificates. This attitude grows out of the feeling among teachers in some sections that they do not welcome the competition of teachers from other parts of the country. In some states there is an open and avowed policy of giving preference to state teachers even though they may be inferior in training and preparation. Characteristic of the statements received is that of a prominent state superintendent of public instruction who says that there is no arrangement in his state whereby certificates may be issued based upon certificates secured in other states or whereby certificates may be issued through endorsement. He states further, that his department gives consideration to the applicant's preparation as a basis for certification and that a graduate from a two-year course in a standard normal school is made the basis for certification without examination for teaching in the elementary grades and in the one-year, two-year, and three-year high schools. A graduate from a standard college or university with fifteen semester hours in the department of education will secure the applicant a high school certificate. Another state department reports that the other states of the union accept diplomas from the institutions within its state and that it, in turn, accepts diplomas from the institutions which the various states recognize as standard. Another state department says that it is

their practice to grant certificates upon a certain amount of work accomplished in schools outside the state if their work is recognized by the state department of education in the state in which they are situated. For this purpose the work in normal schools and colleges must cover two or four years above high school in order to be recognized as the basis for the issuance of certificates by endorsement. In this connection it seems to be a growing practice for state departments of education to refer all matters concerning certification which are based upon credits to the teacher training institutions of the state. There is still a considerable variety in the basis for the evaluation of professional credits in different parts of the country.

The dean of one of the state universities writes that he does not suppose it is possible, and he doubts if it is advisable, to have entirely uniform laws in regard to certification, but he is of the opinion that we could improve very much upon our present methods of rating certificates issued in different states.

Your committee has not been able to make any wide or exhaustive study of the problems that have been submitted to it. To do more than suggest lines of study would not be possible without extensive research and the wide collection of a great deal of data bearing upon the topics that have been mentioned. The chairman of your committee would suggest and recommend that the consideration of standards and requirements for teachers in the service, be made a special subject for investigation and study by the Department of Classroom Teachers, and it is suggested that the United States Bureau of Education be requested to gather information from all of the state departments of education concerning the reciprocal relations regarding the certification of teachers and the basis on which the various state departments grant certificates to teachers coming from other states.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON ETHICS OF THE PROFESSION

SARAH T. MUIR, HEAD OF ENGLISH DEPARTMENT, LINCOLN HIGH SCHOOL,
LINCOLN, NEBRASKA, CHAIRMAN

The committee on ethics of the profession appointed in November, 1924, by the president of the National Education Association, Jesse H. Newlon, made its first report in July, 1925, at Indianapolis before the Representative Assembly which voted to continue the committee. Mary McSkimmon, the incoming president, reaffirmed the committee appointment.

Because of the distance between the members of the committee, the business of the committee has been largely conducted through correspondence, until February, 1926, when a representative group met in Washington, D. C., and planned future procedure. At that time a sub-com-

mittee was empowered to outline further plans of the committee and to prepare the report for the Philadelphia meeting.

The sub-committee¹ has held two meetings, one in Washington, D. C., and one in Lincoln, Nebraska, with part of the membership present each time. In addition, the members of the sub-committee have carried on extensive correspondence. The report to be presented before this Representative Assembly is, therefore, a statement of the findings of the committee which has been endeavoring to carry out the wishes expressed by the teachers of the United States for a study of the ethics of the profession.

Starting with a survey of what has been done in code-making in the teaching profession and in other professions and trades, the committee at first looked forward to the possibility that a tentative code might be drafted and presented in this, its second report. The conviction is growing, however, in the minds of the members of the committee that the teachers of the whole nation will have to lend assistance if this code is to be vital. Proof of this lies in the dissatisfaction which is felt with nearly all the codes formulated. Valuable as they are as evidence that the profession feels the need of a code of ethics, they are not usable as a national code because they lack the note of reality that would be evident if they had been the work of a mass of teachers, or the result of extensive and painstaking research.

One of the main tasks of the committee so far has been to gather information as to such professional policies and standards as are prevalent and desirable. Its members have contributed their time and energy toward this task by exchanging their experiences and those of others through correspondence and in the meetings of the committee. The committee thus offers itself as a source of information, available to the National Education Association and to such state and city teachers associations as may care to avail themselves of a "clearinghouse" of such information. For those who are interested in teachers' codes now extant, the appended report,² initiated and worked out by Ward G. Reeder, read and approved by the members of the committee, with the sanction and cooperation of the chairman of the committee, will provide a useful body of information. As the principles, rules, and standards of the teaching profession become crystallized, through such investigations, through suggestions and criticisms of members of the Association, and through such codes and practice committees as are instituted—some thirty state teachers associations now have a code of ethics—the committee will endeavor to work out a tentative code of ethics for the guidance of the profession as a national body and for the clearing up of matters that may be causing unnecessary friction within its ranks. It is the sense of the committee, however, that the in-

¹ Members of the sub-committee: Chairman, Sarah T. Muir, head of English department, Lincoln High School, Lincoln, Nebraska, Ward G. Reeder, department of school administration, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, C. F. Taesch, associate professor of philosophy, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa, Jesse H. Newlon, superintendent of schools, Denver, Colorado, Helen Louise Cohen, head of English department, Washington Irving High School, New York City.

² See "The Ethics of the Teaching Profession," Report of the Committee on Ethics of the Profession, National Education Association.

formation which is at present available does not warrant the immediate drafting of such a code for the National Education Association.

In order to work out more thoroughly and effectively the problems of professional ethics for teachers, a sub-committee of five members has been appointed, with the chairman of the committee as chairman of the sub-committee. The sub-committee consists of two classroom teachers, one superintendent of schools, and two college teachers whose work has been largely in the field of professional ethics. It is the function of this sub-committee to expedite the work of the principal committee, by formulating policies and procedure, by gathering further information, especially in the form of concrete cases of professional conduct, and by furthering the development of a keener sense of professional consciousness among teachers; all such activities of the sub-committee are being referred to the committee and to the National Education Association for endorsement or rejection.

The committee regards the case method of approach to the problem of professional ethics among teachers as a valuable method. It was in this way that the common law arose; and so also did its later tributaries, the merchant law, canon law, and marine law, contribute to its development. The New York County Bar Association has made considerable progress in the sanctioning of professional conduct by entertaining, through its practice committee, debatable and questionable cases of professional conduct. Some two hundred and seventy cases have been passed on by this committee. Its decisions, which are merely advisory, are so valuable that they are being recognized by the American Bar Association and by judges in their decisions as the most effective work so far done toward cleansing the profession of its abuses and malpractices and toward clarifying its standards and ideals. Similar success has met the efforts of the American Association of Engineers, whose code of ethics was drafted only after a considerable number of practice cases had accumulated; the code when written has been constantly subject to revision as more concrete cases arise among engineers and are interpreted by those who are in a position to determine the expediency and morality involved in professional problems. Some sixty cases have been formulated by this association. Rotary International has similarly been interested in the gathering of trade practices, and has proved to be a powerful force for social good merely through clarifying issues and attitudes, the misunderstanding of which leads to unfair and harmful trade activities.

The committee proposes to proceed with a similar method tentatively in view. It holds that the teaching profession has reached a sufficient degree of maturity and dignity to warrant the clarification of certain ethical problems which are more and more forcing themselves on the profession, and which can and must be dealt with by the organized intelligence and administrative capacities of the Association. Such a procedure activated by the committee, and sanctioned by the Association, will go far to develop the proper professional attitude of teachers, and to secure to teachers, the nation over, those intangible rewards—service to the child

and to the community, professional dignity, and the freedom to pursue a valuable and enjoyable vocation and to secure its best interests and purposes.

In its work the committee appeals to the members of the Association for help and cooperation. The membership of the committee is sufficiently large to be representative of the various geographic areas of the country, and also of the several groups included in the comprehensive term "teacher"—classroom, research, critic, normal training, and administrative. Teachers are urged to communicate with the most accessible member of the committee and to aid in some of the fields of research which the committee is pursuing. Among these fields of research are the following:

1. How do codes of ethics function in the teaching profession and in other professions and trades?
2. What principles of ethical procedure have been and are being violated in the teaching profession? (A collection of cases; the committee is very anxious to have as many as possible of available cases.)
3. Should a practice committee or commission be constituted to consider the cases thus collected? If so, how should it be constituted?
4. Should a code be built up from these cases of violation of professional conduct, and what things should go into a code of ethics for the National Education Association?

The committee respectfully urges, since its work is only well begun, that it be continued by the National Education Association.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON COMMUNITY RELATIONS

GEORGE E. CARROTHERS, COLLEGE OF EDUCATION, OHIO UNIVERSITY
ATHENS, OHIO, CHAIRMAN

In pursuance of the program outlined in its report of July, 1925, the Committee held its second formal meeting at Indianapolis during the annual convention of the National Education Association. The chief business accomplished at this time was the crystallization of the views of the Committee upon one highly important question. That is, the matter of the teacher's relation to after-class activities. Has the regular teacher a professional duty in the field of community relations? Should he be willing to *give* time to parent-teacher organizations and similar activities?

The Attitude of the Teacher Toward Wider Use

The preliminary discussion among the members of the Committee developed fairly general agreement upon the following main points:

1. Parent-teacher associations are valuable and important assets of an educational system and they cannot be developed and successfully carried on without the aid of teachers.
2. Teachers, like all other professional people, require leisure for recreation and personal development,

3. It is good administrative policy to respect the teachers' right to a proper margin of leisure.

4. Enterprise and initiative on the part of the teacher in the development of wider-use activities is a laudable method of professional advance and should be encouraged by school authorities.

5. It is difficult to make suitable budgetary provision for new and experimental activities. At the same time new activities do not start full-blown and mature.

Such were the main aspects of the problem before the Committee. Its solution required a method in which these opposing claims could be reconciled. It was found that an advance had been made just as soon as all sides of the situation had been defined and faced. Another step forward was made when it was recognized that the teachers' attitude is largely determined by the attitude of the school board as expressed in its acts and requirements. Accordingly, the Committee set about the task of formulating a forward-looking stand for a board of education to take regarding the endeavors of its teaching staff in the community-use sphere. This is expressed in the following set of resolutions which were laid before the Representative Assembly of the National Education Association at its Indianapolis meeting.

Suggested School Board Policy in Regard to Staffing "Wider-Use" Activities

Resolutions offered by the Committee on Community Relations:

(a) Whereas, progressive educational thought recognizes that participation in parent-teacher associations and other forms of community activity contributes to the smooth running of the school and to the teacher's ability to prepare pupils for future social and civic relations,

(b) Whereas, "wider-use" activities, whether physical, recreational or cultural, for both youth and adults, represent an important extension of the character developing influence of the school,

(c) Whereas, bringing parents, citizens and the public generally into direct use and enjoyment of school facilities contributes to a better understanding of, and a more generous community financial support for, public education,

(d) Whereas, a school plant designed and equipped for community-use gives the school a better plant for its primary educational purpose,

(e) Whereas, wise administrative policy requires that all use by the community of school grounds, buildings and equipment be under the control and supervision of school officials, and

(f) Whereas, the professional development, the physical welfare, and spiritual needs of both principals and teachers require sufficient leisure to permit a reasonable pursuit of personal interests and avocations,

Therefore, be it resolved, that it is the sense of this body (1) that all public school governing boards should formulate a definite, fact-based,

community-use policy and make adequate provision for its practical realization, however modest the beginning in any school system may of necessity be,

(2) That the community-use department of public school systems be staffed by persons having the qualifications required for their special duties,

(3) That all regular services and activities in the field of community relations be adequately budgeted at the same time and in connection with the annual budgeting of other school activities, and that a special appropriation be made to provide, so far as can be anticipated, for new community activities which may arise and become standardized during the fiscal year,

(4) That regular teachers may with advantage to the school and to themselves professionally take the initiative in the development of new community relations and give their services to such activities without remuneration during their formative period,

(5) That voluntary undertakings in the community-use field be stimulated by the dissemination of information concerning developments in other school systems, and that these voluntary activities be encouraged by the notation upon service records of both principals and teachers of all definite community activities thus performed,

(6) That school administrators should neither demand or expect regular and continued out-of-school service from teachers in connection with community activities without compensation for the extra service performed.

It will be observed that the above resolutions apply more particularly to the large class of cities in which there are as yet no school center departments and no definite programs of activity in the community relations field. They refer to the common situation in which the school board stands between a group of conservative citizens who are content with the traditional ways and a group of other people who are keen to try new measures. They take cognizance of the fact that a school system is an organic body and one which is therefore constantly troubled with "growing pains." The urge to take on new functions before structural adaptations have been perfected to carry them on is a clear symptom of healthy growth.

School activity cannot keep away from new relationships even if it would. Modern educational thought is driving it to a closer and closer contact with the immediate community. These resolutions outline a method for making this adaptation so far as the personnel of a school system is concerned.

Action upon the above resolutions was not called for at Indianapolis.

They were simply presented and are being held over for consideration by the members of the National Education Association at the Philadelphia meeting, at which time their adoption will be moved. It is hoped that all delegate members will study the proposed resolutions and be prepared to enter into the discussion and action upon them at the forthcoming annual meeting.

The Regulation of Schoolhouse Lettings

With a view to ascertaining and giving attention to those problems in the community relations field which are most acute, several score of school superintendents were circularized last fall by the Committee. The replies received showed that the regulation of schoolhouse lettings was occasioning considerable trouble and that subject was therefore made the main topic for discussion at the third meeting of the Committee in Washington, February 22, 1926, during the sessions of the Department of Superintendence.

The discussion revealed that there exists a wide diversity of practice and attitude on the part of school authorities in the utilization of school plants during the marginal periods. That the community is entitled to a use of its educational equipment over and above the period devoted to formal class work is now a generally accepted principle. The school systems of the country vary greatly, however, in the degree to which this principle is put into practice. The stages of progress can be roughly described in the terms of the lettings procedure set up by the various systems. They include:

1. Regulations barely permitting use of facilities by outside groups but fashioned mainly to prevent misuse and damage
2. Regulations encouraging use of facilities in principle but surrounded with a procedure making such use difficult in practice
3. More practical regulations with a carefully elaborated routine for obtaining school privileges
4. Practical regulations and procedure plus personnel deputed to facilitate and promote extensive "wider-use."

A part of the difficulty exists in the confusion as to what constitutes the school board's obligation in the matter. Should it let buildings just to give the taxpayer more value for his money? Or does "wider-use" constitute an extension of the board's educational function? When it permits a local society to use a school auditorium for a fee, is it discharging an educational function or merely cutting down expenses? If the activities of some societies are educational, how shall this class of society be distinguished? These are the questions about which there is confusion and the clearing up of which constitutes an important objective for the Committee.

The Elements of the "Regulations" Question

The discussion at the Washington meeting accomplished the important result of breaking up the question into its constituent parts. There were many reports upon the local practice as respects various points and some discussion of general principles, but it was of course seldom that general agreement could be obtained. That could hardly be hoped for until there had been further thought upon the subject and a closer examination of all its aspects. The only practical method is that of first breaking up the

subject into its elemental parts and considering them one at a time. An analysis of this question which was presented at the meeting shows the following elements:

1. Classification of fees
2. Classification and description of groups which seek school privileges on the basis of their purposes
3. Definition of attitude to be taken by school authorities toward the various purposes exemplified
4. Methods of supervising groups to whom facilities are let.

The Classification of Fees

The significance of the fee that is exacted by a school board for the use of a building, lies in the fact that its amount reveals the attitude of the board toward the user and the use. When the board charges no fee it is doing a favor to the group. It is making what is tantamount to a financial donation to the group and to its cause. Naturally the board must be in a position to justify such action and its justification can be based only upon the value of the activity which was aided. When a board grants the use of facilities for a sum which just covers the actual wear and tear, consumption of heat and light, and compensation of custodian, it is not making an economic contribution but it may be considered nevertheless to be giving the group and its activity public moral support. When a board charges a fee that includes an excess above all costs, it can take the position that it is extending no favoritism and is giving no moral support. It is simply securing for the taxpayer the fullest economic return possible from his investment.

The most useful classification of fees for the purposes of this discussion is obviously, therefore, the following:

1. No fee, meaning that the actual expense of the use is borne by the board
2. Cost fee, which is considered equal to actual expense occasioned
3. Profit fee, a sum covering the actual cost plus an additional amount

In applying this classification, actual cost figures would be the soundest basis but where these are lacking, the intention of the board in fixing the fee should be the guide. If it was intended merely to cover the cost, then, so far as the board's purpose goes—which is the really significant fact—that is a cost fee.

The Problem of Classifying Groups Which Use School Facilities

The action of a board in letting school facilities derives its significance then from the purpose of the activity which is accommodated. For this reason a classification of the groups seeking school privileges will be most useful if it is based on purpose or aims.

In fixing classes of organizations from the standpoint of purpose, great care must be taken to steer clear of subjective terms. The debating club and the civic association both give satisfaction to their members. But to

take "give satisfaction to members" as the characteristic of a certain class of organizations would be futile since it applies equally well to all voluntary groups. Any helpful description of a class must have an objective reference and at the same time specify characteristics of purpose or objective which apply only to a certain considerable number of organizations.

The making of such a classification in terms which would command general agreement is obviously a difficult task whether undertaken by an individual or a committee. It can be accomplished finally only by making trials, collecting criticisms, and then making further trials until a satisfactory statement is produced.

As a first step in this process there is being offered a tentative classification together with illustrative examples. No pretense is made that the lists include all the groups which properly belong to the class.

A Tentative Classification of Groups Together with Examples

CLASS	EXAMPLES
a. Voluntary associations providing recreational, social or cultural opportunities for other than their own members	Community Center Association Local Community Service Committee Social Settlement Y. M. C. A. Art Association
b. Public welfare organizations devoted to ends going beyond the individual advantage of members	Parent-teacher Association Taxpayers Association Ward Improvement Organization Civic Association
c. Groups devoted to personal culture or self-improvement	Music Club Debating Society Radio Club Little Theater Group Boy Scout Troop
d. Groups organized for recreational or social enjoyment Two classes: 1. Adults 2. Juniors	Athletic Club Basketball Club Bridge Club Dancing Club
e. Partisan political groups	Democratic Party Socialist-Labor Party Republican County Committee
f. Economic groups	Labor Union Manufacturers Association Grange
g. Propagandistic groups, organizations working for or against changes in laws, institutions or customs	Single Tax Association Child Labor Association Anti-Saloon League League Against Prohibition National Security League
h. Religious bodies	Methodist Church Congregational Church Roman Catholic Church
i. Secret Societies	Masons Odd Fellows Greek letter societies

The Committee submits this classification for the purpose of securing constructive criticisms. It will be glad to receive suggestions as to the phrasing of the classes and additional examples. It would be especially helped by inquiries as to the placing of specific groups which do not seem to be comprehended in the classes listed. In such cases the work and purpose of the group should be rather fully and definitely described.

After a satisfactory classification has been worked out and the social and educational significance of the various classes has been fully explored, the Committee will then turn to the consideration of the relation to these groups which should be taken by public education systems.

After that will come the subject of the best methods of supervising the groups to whom facilities are let. This topic and several others were discussed at the Washington meeting but the material thus obtained is not sufficiently comprehensive as yet to report.

Reference to the list of problems in the Committee's 1925 report will show that there are many of a fundamental character which still need attention. Its members are busy people and they are obliged to work slowly. They are striving, nevertheless, to produce sound and worthwhile results in this important field of public education and they hope that the Committee may be continued with its present allowance for postage and stationery.

Communications may be addressed to Clarence A. Perry, the secretary of the Committee, at 130 East 22nd Street, New York City.

REPORT OF THE EDITORIAL COUNCIL

WILLIAM C. BAGLEY, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK CITY

The Editorial Council, as usual, has held two meetings during the year. The members of the Representative Assembly will recall that this body acts as a committee of advice and counsel with reference to the editorial policies of the Association's *Journal*.

The Council wishes to convey to the Assembly its hearty approval of the general policies which are determining the contents and character of the *Journal*, and its recommendation that these policies be continued.

The *Journal* aims to serve the entire membership of the Association. To this end, the articles that it publishes must in the main concern themselves with the broader problems of the profession as a whole. As the Council has reported to you at preceding meetings, the statement of this basic policy answers many of the questions that come from the members of the Association regarding what the *Journal* includes, and more particularly, what it excludes.

To deal with the exclusions first, it is clear that the *Journal* can not, in a large way, contribute to the specialized interests of the many highly specialized groups that comprise our profession. It is only as these specialized interests have a distinct and important bearing upon the profession as a

whole that the limited space of the *Journal's* pages can be devoted to them.

Happily, the problem that this limitation involves is coming to be solved in what is, I think, a most effective way. Our specialized departments are themselves financing or helping to finance publications—journals, quarterlies, yearbooks—which provide ample means of dealing with these special interests.

As to what the *Journal* includes and emphasizes, a few statements may well be made. There is, of course, a certain amount of material to be published informing our members of the two annual meetings, both in the way of preliminary programs and announcements and in the way of summarizing the addresses and proceedings. Certain of the addresses, too, are included in full because they deal with the larger problems that I have already referred to.

The most significant recent development in the educational policy of the *Journal* is the careful preparation of at least two series of related articles which will run through the year and which will treat, in a way that we hope will appeal to all of our members, topics or problems that are of outstanding significance. This has been Mr. Morgan's plan for some time, but he has only recently reached the point in the development of his office and its staff where it has been possible to look ahead for a full year, arrange for a series of articles, and have them all in hand at the beginning of the year.

Mr. Morgan has now ready for the coming year two important series of articles.

The first deals with what is perhaps the most serious of the larger problems confronting American education today. This is the problem that is coming to be called "character education." We have, in our profession, an interesting custom of giving a new name every now and again to our problems and our processes. For example, we used to speak of discipline, but now we speak of "social control." Once a child was just naughty, but now he has a "behavioristic complex." In the far past some pupils were disobedient, now they are merely "lacking in docility." And I take it that "character"-education in the past was known by another name.

It is likely, however, that its objectives have not changed very much. A decent regard on the part of the individual for the rights and feelings, the lives and the property of other people is still apparently essential to civilization. And in this connection, it is pretty generally agreed that our American civilization is not what we should like it to be. It is scarcely a matter of pride to us that, among the civilized nations, we have by far the highest ratios of serious crime. It is still less a matter of pride—indeed it should be a matter of the deepest concern—that these ratios are apparently increasing year by year and have been increasing for at least a generation, while in most of the other great nations the crime-curves have consistently fallen with the enlightenment of their people.

Whether character education, as present-day experts in this field conceive of it, will concern itself with this serious problem, I do not know. I be-

lieve that it is well, however, to get from these experts all of the information and suggestion and inspiration that they have to offer. It would be rather unfortunate for the reputation of the present generation of American teachers if the future historian should look at our appalling record of murder, assault, robbery, and other serious crimes, and then examine the files of our official professional journal and find that we had not even concerned ourselves with the situation.

Personally, I am pleased, then, that Mr. Morgan has chosen character-education as one of the first problems to be attacked in this rather extended and systematic way. You will be glad to learn, also, that he has secured some outstanding articles from members of our profession who are well qualified to give us helpful advice.

The second series of articles likewise deals with a phase of civilization in which the American brand of civilization is apparently not so strong as it should be. It may be, too, that the solution of this second problem will contribute something to the solution of the first. To recognize the need of art in life is to recognize something that has far more than a sentimental value—far more than what we sometimes call a leisure-time value. The ideals of fine workmanship, which are in the narrower sense so sharply demands, are no less needed in the work-a-day life. Nor is a keen sensitiveness to what is truly beautiful in the world of the fine arts without the possibilities of a wider spread. One can scarcely deny that there are certain phases of our collective life that are sordid and other phases that are ugly.

When a sufficient number of people rebel against sordidness and ugliness, these elements will disappear. And to this end an educational program that seeks consistently to raise the general level of taste and appreciation should make a substantial contribution. It was with especial pleasure, then, that the Editorial Council learned that Mr. Morgan has had prepared a series of articles under the general caption, "Building Beauty into Everyday Life."

Mr. Morgan is now looking forward to the year 1927-28. The topic that has been provisionally selected for that year is the professional education of teachers. The past decade has witnessed a marked development in this field. The growth of the normal schools and teachers colleges; the expansion outward and the extension upward of their curricula, and the marked improvement in their standards; all these have been outstanding features of this development. The consolidation and extension of these gains will depend in large part upon the vigor and earnestness with which the profession stands back of these schools which not only prepare its recruits but are also rendering an increasing service to the teachers already "on the job."

In spite of the recent advances, the schools preparing for our profession still lack the public support that they need. Other state-supported institutions of the same grade are supported far more generously. In making a study of a state system of normal schools a few years ago, I found that the state in question was each year appropriating more money for a single agri-

cultural college enrolling 600 students than it was spending for ten state normal schools enrolling 3000 students. A similar discrepancy will be found in almost every state. The contrasts with other publicly-supported professional schools are almost equally striking.

Now, in a very real sense, the support that technical and professional schools receive from the public is determined very largely by the occupational groups for which they train recruits. One of the most important bits of collective service that we, as a profession, can render to our cause is to work in season and out of season for the betterment of those institutions that are in a peculiar sense our proteges. To make these institutions legitimately attractive to the capable young men and young women of each generation will mean the continual upgrading of our professional personnel. This means not only a generous public support but it also means breadth and depth rather than narrowness and shallowness in the professional curricula. It means strong faculties who will carry on, under favorable conditions, the finest of our professional traditions. It must mean a type of professional school to which every member of our professional group can point with pride.

A full and frank discussion of this problem, then, has a clear justification in the *Journal*. It is distinctly a problem, not alone of the specialist in this field, but of the profession as a whole. The Council hopes that Mr. Morgan will meet with success in his efforts to set this problem before our members in a way that will both interest them and stimulate them to action.

It is needless to say that these series of special articles to which I have referred will in no sense monopolize the space of the *Journal*. Other broad and fundamental issues will receive attention. For example, the continued and ever-growing interest of teachers everywhere in the curriculum-problem not only justifies but demands frequent articles summarizing the results of the curriculum-investigations and keeping our members in close touch with the latest developments.

There has been a great deal of discussion in our Council meetings regarding the attitude that the *Journal* should take toward our rapidly-growing professional literature and toward the world of books in general. From the outset it has seemed unwise to attempt to review books, except under rare special conditions. From month to month, however, book-lists are presented which are intended to give to our members a suggestion of what is probably the best material appearing in various fields. Once each year a list of the forty best books in the whole education field, published during the preceding year, is presented.

There have been some complaints about these lists on the ground that certain books are omitted. Such complaints are likely to occur under any conditions, and in some cases are probably justified. I know myself how a writer feels when the children of his brain are either passed by unnoticed or distinctly rated as less robust or less beautiful or less brilliant than are the children of other writers' brains. At the same time, a rather prolonged experience and perhaps the materialism of advancing years has led me to be

somewhat more interested in the sales-reports than in the book reviews or the book-lists. I think that most of my fellow-writers take the same view, for Mr. Morgan tells me that the complaints about the book-lists come chiefly from the publishers and not from the authors.

However that may be, you will be glad to know that Mr. Morgan is taking steps to make these lists just as free from justified criticism as possible. He is, indeed, devising a plan whereby each year's professional books will be rated and ranked by a number of competent judges to the end that our readers may be sure that the lists present what is in all probability the very cream of each year's offerings.

In concluding this report, the Council wishes again to commend to the Association the broad vision and the keen insight that Mr. Morgan has brought to the conduct of the *Journal*, as well as his untiring efforts toward its improvement. The editorship of such a publication involves a multitude of detailed duties which would in themselves constitute a man's full job. For him, however, these are only a fraction of his total responsibilities. Because he discharges them all so well, he clearly deserves both the gratitude and the continued confidence of the Association.

It is the recommendation of the Council, that adequate financial support be given to the Department of Publications of which Mr. Morgan is the chief.

REPORT OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE ON BETTER CO-OPERATION BETWEEN SCHOOLS AND MUSEUMS

HENRY TURNER BAILEY, DIRECTOR, CLEVELAND MUSEUM OF ART, CLEVELAND, OHIO, CHAIRMAN

The Joint Committee of the National Education Association and the American Association of Museums on Better Cooperation Between Schools and Museums submits the following recommendations which were presented to the American Association of Museums and approved by that organization:

1. The public schools and the museums should cooperate to enrich progressively the intellectual and emotional life of the people.
2. Such enrichment will come to the individual as the result of experiences with Nature at first hand, with works of art, with museum specimens and with other original objects having human interest.
3. The public schools should lead in placing emphasis on nature study in the great outdoor museum, where everything is alive. To promote such activity provision should be made for generous school gardens, or for public parks within walking distance of every school building, or for free transportation to some observational area.
4. These primary experiences should be supplemented by contact with the material gathered in museums of science, history, and art, whose contents should be placed freely at the service of the public schools.

5. The public schools should make use of this material to the fullest possible extent.
6. To promote such mutual service normal schools and teachers colleges should train their students in observation and exposition, through excursions into the open, and trips to the museums.
7. The expenses of providing the materials, required for observation and for circulating and keeping in proper condition the traveling materials should be shared between the museums and the boards of education, upon some mutually satisfactory basis.
8. A representative of the public schools should be selected to cooperate with the supervisors and teachers and with the museum authorities in selecting the loan material. He should also be charged with the responsibility of assembling, caring for and circulating from a distributing center all the material supplied by the museums.
9. Circulating material should not be considered as an adequate substitute for occasional visits to the central museums. Such visits should be made to acquaint the children with the great educational institutions other than their schools, and should yield perennial delight and inspiration, and insure more generous support for museum activities in the next generation.
10. Wherever museums are not established, local, county, or state school boards should provide for carrying on visual education by the best available means.
11. At the present time, available material for visual education throughout the United States is inadequate. The joint committee of the National Education Association and the American Association of Museums should be instructed to secure the cooperation of the museums and of American publishing companies to supply a part of what the schools need.

Some of the material may be summarized briefly, as follows:

- a. Actual objects, such as mammals, birds, insects, specimens of sea life, food products, tree products, materials for clothing, materials for shelter, raw materials in the different stages of manufacture, etc.; actual specimens from the fields of biology, geology, botany, anthropology and the other various branches of science.
- b. Lists of available educational films and slides showing growing and moving things, and industrial processes, in short, the activities of nature and men.
- c. Facsimile reproductions of historical documents, pictures and objects in the historical museums of the country, of special value in the teaching of American history and literature.
- d. Reproductions in color of the finest pictures, textiles, and other decorative material in American museums.
- e. Photographs and reproductions in color of objects in natural history museums having unusual cultural values.
- f. Reprints of illustrations in black and white and color from the best work of artists modern and ancient.

- g. Photographs of the finest sculpture, the finest architecture, and the finest handicraft produced in the United States and in other countries.
 - h. Reproductions in color of the finest mural decorations in American buildings and elsewhere.
 - i. Illustrations of the finest products of American industry.
 - j. Pamphlets made up of sample pages of the finest work of American designers and printers.
 - k. Illustrated pamphlets descriptive of the scenery, institutions, occupations, and resources of cities and countries, such as are published by boards of trade.
12. A joint committee of the National Education Association and of the American Association of Museums should be appointed to secure a prominent place for the discussion of visual education upon the program of every county, state, and national gathering of public school teachers and museum workers.
13. Representatives of the National Education Association and of the American Association of Museums should endeavor to secure the appointment of local committees in every school district in the United States to promote an interest in visual education, and to secure means for its development.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON HOMES FOR RETIRED TEACHERS

PRESENTED JULY, 1926, AT THE PHILADELPHIA MEETING OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION BY OLIVE M. JONES, PRINCIPAL, PUBLIC SCHOOL 120 AND ANNEXES, NEW YORK CITY, CHAIRMAN OF THE COMMITTEE

SECTION A—Incidents and Conditions Which Aroused My Personal Interest During Term of Office as President of the National Education Association

In August of 1923, I happened to be present at a meeting where teachers were receiving their assignments for the new school year. I saw two women of over sixty left without contracts. Both had given forty years of satisfactory service. The state has no proper pension law. Both told me that they were without homes or funds, except the charity of uncongenial distant relatives. One had provided for an invalided father and brought up and educated his two children by a second marriage.

The president of the board of education in a southern city told me that a large number of old teachers had been discovered in poorhouses and insane asylums of her state. The discovery was made during a legislative investigation of state and county institutions. She did not know of my interest in the old-age conditions of teachers, but was citing the instances in connection with the struggle to prevent salary decreases in that state.

Among my personal acquaintances are several horribly lonely old women, to whom a few of us give as much attention as our busy lives permit. They

have pensions, so that they are in no need of food or clothing or room, but they have outlived all upon whom they might rightfully depend for companionship. Many National Education Association members have told me of former teachers similarly situated in their own towns.

The need of a home in old age is particularly the problem of the unmarried woman teacher. The large majority of men have families and look to the grateful care of sons and daughters. The unmarried woman teacher has no such future hope. In addition, her salary has usually been smaller, her opportunities for making "extra" money have been few, and she usually has the support and care of her own parents and aged relatives, being the last one left in the family home.

In the Park Avenue Hotel, New York, while I myself lived there, the principal of my own childhood's school lived a most lonely life. Once a popular, handsome woman, she had grown very old and had outlived all her relatives and contemporaries. She was so deaf one had to scream to make her hear and people avoided her as a bore. She was taken ill and was found dead in her bed by a chambermaid, no one else having happened to enter her room to call assistance.

Actors, sailors, Masons, and other groups provide for the old age and for the comfort of retired members of their organizations. Many benefit organizations maintain such homes. Homes for the aged poor have long replaced the old-time almshouse in many localities.

To few of those homes is the retired teacher eligible. If she has a pension, its amount is too small for the weekly or monthly payments required, or the receipt of a fixed income renders her ineligible for admission to homes that require a sum to be paid in its entirety upon admission.

The education, experience, and social life of a teacher make the home for the aged poor a harsh return for her years of service, yet the salary of the average teacher does not permit of saving in amounts sufficient to warrant any other home and care in old age.

Neither is financial need the only, or even the saddest, part of the retired teacher's need. Companionship to prevent loneliness and grief—this is the need the old teacher feels most and says least about. Among people of similar age and with similar experience, as at a teachers home, they would not lack companionship.

SECTION B—Plans Proposed to the Committee as Substitutes for the "Home" Plan

1. *Old-age insurance and boarding-out in families*—While I cannot claim to have thoroughly investigated these plans, I have done enough to know that they are inadequate and utterly fail to meet the teacher's need.

Both these ideas fail extraordinarily to consider the culture, education, and ideals of living the average teacher now has and should be required to have. It is bad enough to make her maintain such ideals on an inadequate salary during her teaching career without throwing her in old age into the

type of uncongenial home that would "take a boarder" at the figure allowed by old age insurance. The "boarding-out" plan, admirable for children and the aged laborer, is a tragedy for the professional worker.

2. *The group insurance plan*—I do not see how this can be applied to the needs of the aged teacher. The retirement allowance systems, gradually being adopted by the states, are excellent, notably New York City, but they do not meet the needs I have outlined in section A of this report. The group insurance plan has even less value in such needs.

The group insurance plan presupposes several conditions which are not and never can be true for teachers. To cite only a few:

The officials of the school systems cannot be held responsible for the payment of premiums. The turnover among the teaching body as a whole is very great and the turnover in a given locality is even greater. The teacher who continues to old age may be a part of several groups during her career and may have only very small claim, if any, on the last one.

3. *Adequate salaries which would permit saving for old age*—It is argued that instead of establishing homes, effort should be made towards providing adequate salaries for the most notoriously underpaid worker in the country. If it were not so serious, this would be a joke. The cost of public education is already so high that every state is screaming about its debt limit and real estate is squealing like the proverbial stuck pig.

I am a member of Governor Smith's commission on school finance and administration. I can speak authoritatively from the studies the commission has made. Many generations of teachers will have passed away and will have suffered from need of care in old age, before teachers' salaries will be adequate for living, let alone saving.

New means of taxation must be discovered and when discovered, politicians must be induced to pass the legislation making the new taxes law. Practical experience with legislation for teachers' salaries is all the proof one needs that there is no hope for old age in the provision of adequate salaries.

4. *Adequate retirement allowances*—It is also argued that if the states were urged to pass laws providing adequate retirement allowances, homes would not be needed. It has even been feared that activity on behalf of establishing homes for aged teachers might be prejudicial to the enactment of retirement allowance laws for teachers. No one believes more enthusiastically than I in laws providing retirement allowances for teachers or has worked harder for their passage. Retirement allowance, actuarially computed and professionally porportioned with due attention to the questions of promotional opportunity, merciful provision for the aged, and recruiting for new teachers,—this is an essential among the conditions for honored living for the worker.

But pension alone does not meet the problem I put before you today. Money alone, no matter how liberal the pension allowance may be, cannot

buy companionship and can secure only mercenaries as caretakers. Furthermore, only a very small minority of the states have pension laws and some of the existing laws are either actuarially unsound or pitifully small in the allowance made.

Many generations of teachers will have passed before any satisfactory change in this condition can be hoped for. Meantime—what?

SECTION C—Specimen Appeals for Admission to Home for Retired Teachers

DEAR MISS JONES:

I wrote you, addressed letter to New York City. Was returned, couldn't find you so will try addressing you at Washington, D. C.

Read in some paper, National Education Association had given endorsement and would support "Teachers Home." Can you give me any information concerning the home. I've been a teacher many years and if I live longer must plan on what to do. You know the older teachers only received a meager salary. I taught my first year, \$19.50, then for 5 years, \$25 a month, then \$35 another five years and so on, so couldn't save anything as I've had the care of an old mother for thirty-six years. I've insured my life for \$1000 and in five years more will have that, so thought I'd better apply to Teachers Home as soon as it was finished. Am a primary teacher and have been for years. This home will need an endowment so will have to ask some of our good friends to help us.

Please write me if you receive this and let me know. I met you at our convention four years ago. I believe you were interested then in this home.

Sincerely,

(Signed) _____

DEAR FRIEND:

I received your letter directed to my former residence at —, —. I am now staying at my brother's residence in —. I wish that you would keep my name and address, and with the interest of some of my former teacher friends who are interested in me, and who knew me the eight and one-half years when I taught here in this city, if I am eligible to go into a home for retired teachers of the United States, I would feel greatly honored. It would be so pleasant and congenial to me to be in such a home for aged teachers, where I could enjoy educated and refined ladies for home companions. I have taught 16½ years, and have also spent 21 years teaching children and some adults in piano lessons. I do wish that some time in the future I could succeed in getting into such a home.

Yours truly,

(Signed) _____

SECTION D—Providing Authorization for Relief

July, 1924—A motion was passed at the Washington meeting of the National Education Association, accepting the gift of Marilla Parker, of Chicago, which upon her death is to be used by the Board of Trustees of the National Education Association as part of a fund for a Retired Teachers Home. A second motion was passed authorizing the preparation of plans for the establishment of this home, subject to the approval of the Executive Committee of the National Education Association.

July, 1925—At the Indianapolis meeting of the National Education Association, the plan for organizing homes for retired teachers was presented to the Representative Assembly and accepted, the agreement being that all contributions were to be cared for by the Board of Trustees as a separate fund and that the details and legal protection were to be planned for by the Executive Committee of the National Education Association.

October, 1925—At a meeting in Colorado Springs, the Executive Committee of the National Education Association appointed the following committee on Homes for Retired Teachers with power to act: Olive M. Jones, principal, Public School 120 and Annexes, New York City, and past president of the National Education Association, Chairman; Mary McSkimmon, principal, Pierce School, Brookline, Mass., and president of the National Education Association for 1925-26; Walter R. Siders, superintendent of schools, Pocatello, Idaho, and chairman of National Education Association board of trustees; Henry Lester Smith, dean, School of Education, Indiana University, and treasurer of National Education Association.

February, 1926—In accordance with resolutions previously passed, the following resolution was passed by the Executive Committee of the National Education Association at its meeting in Washington, D. C.:

The National Education Association has seriously undertaken the consideration of the plans for establishing homes for aged and retired teachers. The need has been demonstrated, but there are other problems involved, including the financing of such an undertaking, the location of the homes, methods of conducting homes happily and successfully, eligibility for admission, and the relationship of the management of the homes to the official boards of the National Education Association.

All these problems are now being investigated and studied by the Executive Committee of the National Education Association and will be reported upon to the Representative Assembly of the National Education Association at Philadelphia, in July, 1926.

Organized activity for raising funds will not begin until after the study now being made has progressed sufficiently to make possible a definite statement of the amount required and of the method of administration and other problems already stated.

Several voluntary contributions have already been made by individuals. The committee realizes that the interest and enthusiasm of teachers regarding the establishment of homes for retired teachers make them desire to express their feeling by immediate contributions of money. These will be accepted and placed under the care of the Board of Trustees of the National Education Association as a separate fund for National Education Association Homes for Retired Teachers.

SECTION E—Appeals Made to the Teaching Profession and the National Education Association

Beginning with February of 1924, I made many appeals. The story of these appeals is briefly told in the National Education Association Home Bulletin No. 2, published in January, 1926.

The results of these appeals are as follows:

1. A committee on National Education Association Homes for Retired Teachers, authorized and appointed, consisting of:

Chairman, Olive M. Jones, a former president.

The president of the National Education Association.

The treasurer of the National Education Association.

The chairman of the Board of Trustees of the National Education Association.

The secretary of the National Education Association.

2. Activity for local care in several states—Minnesota, Massachusetts, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Vermont, etc.

3. Donations of small sums promised and bequests of small sums in wills of more fortunate individual teachers.

4. Well-organized groups in various states ready to begin campaigns for funds when supplied with data and suggestions.

5. Pledges prepared to be used by teachers' organizations in sections already actively interested and to be distributed at 1926 meeting of National Education Association. The authorization to distribute and secure signatures to these pledges is sought from the Representative Assembly.

The pledge reads as follows:

A PLEDGE—to contribute One Dollar (\$1.00) annually to the Fund for National Education Association Homes for Retired Teachers.

National Education Association,
1201 Sixteenth Street N. W.,
Washington, D. C.

DEAR SIRs:

.....
(Date)

I,, hereby pledge to contribute One Dollar
(Name in full)

(\$1.00) annually to the Fund for National Education Association Homes for Retired Teachers for ten years.

The payment of One Dollar (\$1.00) accompanies this letter.

Name.....

Address.....

SECTION F—Study at Present Under Way to Give Essential Information

1. Statistics to show (a) existing need, men and women; (b) probable future need; (c) acceptability of the project; (d) practicability.
2. Location: (a) number desirable; (b) places.
3. Building: (a) type; (b) costs; (c) existing places which might be purchased, combined; etc.
4. Operation: (a) costs; (b) methods; (c) cottage plan or common kitchen.
5. Admission conditions.
6. Study of conditions, costs, etc., in homes maintained for aged members of other professions and fraternal orders.

SECTION G—Organization of State Committees

The committee realizes that the progress of the campaign for raising funds must rest upon activity in the separate states. In order to bring this about, a steady correspondence has been kept up with certain interested persons in each state in order to prepare for the contemplated concentrated campaign of 1926-27. The list of persons who have thus pledged their assistance when the campaign is really under way, follows—(No name is used unless written permission has been received. Many other names under consideration.)

- Alabama—R. V. Allgood.
- Arizona—C. Louise Boehringer.
- Arkansas—Alma Futrall.
- California—Rebecca A. Alsbury, Ida Christine Iversen, Lulu A. Shelton, Edna H. Gillespie.
- Colorado—C. C. Casey, William C. Shute.
- Connecticut—F. A. Verplanck.
- Delaware—H. V. Holloway, W. K. Yerger.
- District of Columbia—Flora L. Hendley, Harry English, Rebecca E. Shanley.
- Florida—Hortense Broward.
- Georgia—Katharine Dozier.
- Idaho—Laura M. Butz.
- Illinois—Jane Neil, Bertha S. Armbruster, F. G. Blair, Isabella Dolton, A. Lulu Hill, Cora E. Mull, Rose A. Pesta.
- Indiana—Martha Whitacre.
- Iowa—Arthur Deamer, Lucy E. Hobbs.
- Kansas—C. T. Rice.
- Kentucky—Elizabeth Breckinridge, J. L. Foust.
- Louisiana—John R. Conniff, P. C. Rogers.
- Maine—Adelaide V. Finch, Helen M. Robinson.
- Maryland—Joseph Blair, Grace Kramer.

- Massachusetts—Cora E. Bigelow, Annie C. Woodward, Henry J. Ryan.
 Michigan—Anna M. Barnard, Lou I. Sigler, Jessie M. Fink.
 Minnesota—Addie M. Jones, Helen B. Shore.
 Mississippi—Willie Mae Du Bard.
 Missouri—Genevieve Turk, J. A. Whiteford.
 Montana—May Trumper.
 Nebraska—Ernest C. Folsom, E. Ruth Pyrtle, Belle Ryan.
 Nevada—Mary S. Black, Chauncey W. Smith.
 New Hampshire—Mary J. Wellington.
 New Jersey—Josephine R. Klages.
 New Mexico—Josie Lockard, W. L. Trimble.
 New York—Ethel A. Brewer, Austine Clark, Theodore A. Zornow.
 North Carolina—R. G. Fitzgerald.
 North Dakota—Minnie J. Neilson.
 Ohio—Frank Appel, J. Howard Winters.
 Oklahoma—E. D. Price.
 Oregon—E. D. Ressler.
 Pennsylvania—Charles S. Davis, Grace Sevan, Grace N. Lacock.
 Rhode Island—Willard H. Bacon.
 South Carolina—E. C. McCants.
 South Dakota—June Emry.
 Tennessee—Sue M. Powers, P. L. Harned.
 Texas—Mamie S. Bastian, Lee Clark, Mary A. Martin.
 Utah—Elizabeth FitzGerald.
 Vermont—Caroline S. Woodruff, Etta Franklin.
 Virginia—Cornelia Adair, Charles G. Maphis, A. H. Hill.
 Washington—Jennie N. French, Almina George, Clara L. Jahnke, Jessie M. Lockwood, Josephine Corliss Preston.
 West Virginia—George H. Colebrank, Eva M. Keyser, Thomas C. Miller.
 Wisconsin—Anna V. Day, Margaret French, F. O. Holt, John F. Sims.
 Wyoming—J. J. Early, Lulu M. McCormick, Kate Smith.
 Alaska—Orah Dee Clark.
 Hawaii—Elsie Wilcox.
 Porto Rico—G. Sellés Solá.

SECTION H—Board of Directors

The committee proposes to organize a national board of patrons, consisting of persons of national prominence who have given approval to the project of establishing homes for aged and retired teachers and whose moral support will be of assistance when a campaign for funds is actually under way.

The various state committees will be asked to add to the following list the names of representative citizens of their several states. So far as organized by the chairman in a period of a very few weeks, the National Board of Patrons already includes:

- William Bondy, James Byrne, members, Board of Regents, New York State.
 George S. Davis, president, Hunter College, New York.
 James J. Davis, United States Secretary of Labor,

John H. Finley, New York Times.
Frank P. Graves, commissioner of education, New York.
Mary Garrett Hay, director, Woman's City Club, New York.
Mrs. Samuel A. Lewisohn.
Sidney E. Mezes, president, The College of the City of New York.
Mrs. Henry Moskowitz.
Howard W. Nudd, director, Public Education Association.
William J. O'Shea, superintendent of schools, New York City.
James E. Russell, dean, Teachers College, Columbia University.
George J. Ryan, president, Board of Education, New York City.
Edward W. Stitt, associate superintendent of schools, New York City.
George D. Strayer, Teachers College, Columbia University.
Mrs. Joseph R. Swan.
John J. Tigert, United States Commissioner of Education.
Herbert S. Weet, superintendent of schools, Rochester.
John W. Withers, dean, School of Education, New York University.

*REPORT OF THE COOPERATING COMMITTEES ON
BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS OF CHILDREN AS ADOPTED
IN JOINT SESSION AT CLEVELAND, OHIO
MAY 27, 1926*

PRESENTED JULY, 1926, AT THE PHILADELPHIA MEETING OF THE
NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION BY OLIVE M. JONES, PRINCIPAL
PUBLIC SCHOOL 120 AND ANNEXES, NEW YORK CITY, CHAIRMAN
OF THE COMMITTEE

The appointment of cooperating committees of the National Education Association and the National Conference of Social Work was the result of effort initiated at an open meeting on "What the Schools Can Do to Prevent Delinquency," held in Washington, D. C., on July 3, 1924, in conjunction with the annual meeting of the National Education Association. In approaching the subject assigned to us as members of the committees we used as the basis for our preliminary discussion the statement issued in the call for this open meeting. The statement follows:

Children Who Present Behavior Problems

The Common Concern of Educators, Social Workers, and Parents

In every public school, children can be found who seem unable to adapt themselves to the usual requirements of group life in the classroom and on the playground. These children may be problems in scholarship or behavior. Improper classification or methods of instruction at school, unwise management at home, broken homes, poverty, lack of suitable recreation, mental or physical defect are among the causes which make them what they are. Many of these causes can be altogether removed or greatly lessened in effect if the right means of diagnosis and treatment are available at the right moment. Efforts to provide such means are already being made in progressive school systems through the establishment of various bureaus and staff services. Thus far, little coordination of these

services has taken place, hence comparison of results or realization of common interests in a common field has been difficult.

These children are also the concern of social-service workers within the educational system and in social agencies which deal with problem children and with problem adults. Such workers are increasingly conscious of the fact that all modern scientific treatment of anti-social conduct is essentially educational or re-educational in character. They believe that the appropriate time for this treatment to be applied is when the first symptoms of maladjustment appear and they recognize the strategic position here held by the public schools. The successful treatment without resort to court action of more and more problem children indicates further possibilities along the same line, both by special agencies and within the educational system.

The following report of the cooperating committees was adopted in joint session held in Cleveland, Ohio, May 27, 1926. An account of the authorization, organization, and deliberations of these committees is appended to the report.

We present three topics for your immediate consideration:

I. Who are Behavior Problem Children?

II. The Objectives of the Cooperating Committees.

III. Suggested Steps for Attaining these Objectives.

I. *Who are Behavior Problem Children?*—Behavior problem children are those who stand out or who differ from others of their group because of certain undesirable habits, personality traits, or behavior in the home, school, or community; whose conduct interferes, or is likely to interfere, with the individual's (or the group's) fullest development and usefulness socially, educationally, or hygienically; and whose behavior may result in more serious handicaps of one sort or another in later life.

As each of the symptoms noted below may spring from any of several causes, and usually occur in various combinations, the following flexible and incomplete groupings are offered merely as suggestive of behavior problem children:

1. Underlying difficulties indicated chiefly by symptoms ordinarily regarded as undesirable habits; such as thumbsucking, nail-biting, enuresis, masturbation, mannerisms, peculiar food fads, disturbances in sleep.

2. Underlying difficulties indicated chiefly by characteristics and personality traits: such as sensitiveness, seclusiveness, secretiveness, inattention, apathy, daydreaming, fanciful lying, "nervousness," tendency to cry easily, moodiness, obstinacy, quarrelsomeness, selfishness, laziness, lack of ambition or interest, timidity, cowardliness, general fearfulness, unpopularity or inability to get along with other children, general restlessness and hyperactivity, wanderlust.

3. Underlying difficulties indicated chiefly by such behavior as: disobedience, teasing, bullying, temper tantrums, bragging or showing off, defiance of or rebellion against authority, keeping late hours, seeking bad

companions, lying, stealing, truancy, destructiveness, cruelty to persons or animals, unusual sex activities.

There are many other groups of *handicapped children* for whom there are usually provided in the community clinical diagnostic facilities, special classes, and institutional provisions. Among these handicapped children not included in the behavior problem group under consideration, are the feeble-minded (subnormal, mentally defective, deficient or backward), the epileptic (spasms, fits, convulsions), those with mental disorders proper (such as dementia præcox, manic depressive psychosis, or so-called "juvenile insanity"), and the physically handicapped (cardiac, blind, crippled, and other physical invalidisms). While certain mental handicaps such as feeble-mindedness and epilepsy, and physical handicaps of various types, constitute problems in children, they are not necessarily behavior problems. When these types of children display undesirable behavior they should have the same consideration as the behavior problem group when their condition permits, and when other facilities are not available. The teacher will not be expected to differentiate between these different diagnoses and undoubtedly special medical and psychological assistance will be necessary in most cases to prevent the making of erroneous decisions. For instance, a child observed in the classroom may appear to be feeble-minded, or epileptic, and perhaps be looked upon as hopeless, although, as a matter of fact, the condition is otherwise and remediable when examined and treated by one trained to do such work. However, this procedure should not be a cause of delay in adapting special training to the needs of the behavior problem child.

It appears that the educational system and the social work agency each hold a key position in dealing with these problems, that they have little knowledge of the other's job from the inside, that each has much to contribute to the other, and that the chief interest of both groups is the developing child, who after all, will benefit most by cooperative effort.

II. *The objectives of the cooperating committees*—1. To bring together representatives of the best thought and the existing activities in the fields of education and social work bearing on the behavior problems of childhood.

2. To develop a mutual working relationship and combined attack, from the preventive and remedial standpoint, on the behavior problems presented by children.

3. To disseminate knowledge thus obtained so that it may become generally available for the recognition, understanding, treatment and prevention of the behavior problems of childhood, thus reducing the end-results now found in social inadequacies, general maladjustments and serious delinquency in later years.

4. To prepare the material so collected in form for easy use and reference by the classroom teacher and by training schools and colleges of education in order that teachers may apply the knowledge to concrete cases.

5. To bring to classroom teachers the knowledge that in many instances behavior problems are the results of removable causes and to provide definite suggestions as to where and how assistance may be obtained to remove both the cause and its consequent maladjustment. At the same time to emphasize to persons in administrative responsibility for the schools the fact that the existence of behavior problems is not necessarily a reflection upon the classroom teacher's powers of control, and to urge that the teacher should be trained to differentiate between behavior problems and other causes of control difficulties.

6. To acquaint social workers with the activities of the schools on behalf of children who present behavior problems and with the best thought of educators for the development of such activities; and to encourage in social workers cooperative spirit and effort in relation to these activities and intelligent appreciation of the problems of the schools.

7. To help stimulate parents to a larger interest in the behavior problems of children and a concern, mutually with educators and social workers, in developing means for more adequate understanding and treatment of such problems.

III. *Suggested steps for attaining these objectives*—The committees believe that the first steps toward the attainment of these objectives should involve study and experimentation with reference to existing activities. Among the suggestions which have thus far come to our attention for consideration are the following. Obviously all of this large program cannot be undertaken at once, and probably only a small part of it can be undertaken in the year ahead. But it has seemed to the committees worthwhile to indicate by this list how broad a range of inquiry and effort is pertinent to the attainment of the objectives as set forth.

1. Study of work done by clinical centers operating in schools and communities and recommendation of the most practical methods for understanding and treating behavior problem children and preventing the development of these problems in the home, school and community.

2. Study of the visiting teacher movement as a social-educational method, and formulation of recommendations.

3. Study of school attendance departments.

4. Studies of departments and bureaus of counselling, child welfare, child study, adjustment, etc.

5. Study of the preparation of teachers and social workers in their various training schools in relation to the teaching of child psychology, mental hygiene, and social psychiatry, and formulation of recommendations.

6. Study of the existing relationship of teachers and social workers in organizations and on boards, and formulation of recommendations.

7. Study of the exchange of publications and of speakers at conferences and formulation of recommendations.

8. Study of the need for educational work in detention homes, protectories, reformatories, orphanages, and other child caring institutions, and formulation of recommendations.

9. Study of existing literature and recommendation of reading lists.

10. Study of the possibilities of teaching general mental hygiene principles in high schools.

11. Study of the methods of vocational guidance in public schools.

12. Study of the contribution being made by school auxiliary groups such as parent-teacher associations and child-study groups.

13. Study of the factors in the school system that may possibly contribute to the development of behavior problems in children and also to administrative difficulties in the educational system.

14. Study of the social forces of the community and their influence on child behavior.

15. Experimentation with informal conferences of local groups including school people and social workers to develop mutual understanding and cooperative effort with reference to specific cases of children presenting behavior problems.

In conclusion we are happy to make special mention of the pleasant relationship, mutual benefit and spirit of sincere cooperation which has characterized the work of the committees, and which we believe carry promise for their future service.

Respectfully submitted,

OLIVE M. JONES,

*Chairman of the Committee Appointed
by the National Education Association.*

GRAHAM ROMEYN TAYLOR,

*Chairman of the Committee Appointed by
the National Conference of Social Work.*

Account of the Authorization, Organization, and Deliberations of the Cooperating Committees on Behavior Problems of Children of the National Education Association and the National Conference of Social Work

The appointment of cooperating committees of the National Education Association and the National Conference of Social Work was the result of effort initiated at an open meeting on "What the Schools Can Do to Prevent Delinquency," held in Washington, D. C., on July 3, 1924, in conjunction with the annual meeting of the National Education Association.

This open conference was arranged by a temporary committee especially organized for the purpose and including in its membership more than eighty representative educators, social workers, psychologists, psychiatrists, juvenile court judges, and probation officers. As setting forth its approach to the subject and its suggestions for practical effort, the temporary committee submitted at the conference the following statement and program and list of the temporary committee:

General Theme—What the Schools Can Do to Prevent Delinquency

Open Meeting July 3 at 2:30 P. M., Shoreham Hotel, Washington, D. C. In conjunction with the annual meeting of the National Education Association. Arranged by a temporary Committee especially organized to consider behavior problems of children.

I. THE SCHOOLS AND THE DELINQUENT CHILD—Address by Olive M. Jones, President of the National Education Association.

II. PSYCHIATRY AND THE UNDERSTANDING OF BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS—Address by Bernard Glueck, M. D., formerly Director of the Bureau of Children's Guidance, New York City.

III. DISCUSSION—The suggested topics may be found on page 8 of this program.

Topics for Discussion

In order to focus attention upon practical effort and develop action, it is suggested that the discussion at this meeting be centered upon the following propositions:

1. That educators, social workers and parents recognize their interest in the problem child.
2. That plans be made to disseminate among teachers, parents and social workers information regarding problem children and wise methods of treatment.
3. That periodic conferences be arranged for the interchange of information and experience among these groups.
4. That, in view of the strategic position of the school in all treatment of problem children, such conferences be called at the next annual meetings both of the National Education Association and of the Department of Superintendence.
5. That this group requests the National Education Association to appoint as one of its standing committees a committee on behavior problem children, and that such committee be requested to take steps for the arrangement of conferences as above suggested and for permanent organization.

TEMPORARY COMMITTEE

- Edith Abbott, School of Social Service Administration, University of Chicago.
 Grace Abbott, Children's Bureau, Washington, D. C.
 Herman W. Adler, Juvenile Psychopathic Institute, Chicago, Ill.
 Meta Anderson, Department of Special Education, Newark, N. J.
 V. V. Anderson, National Committee for Mental Hygiene, New York City.
 William C. Bagley, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.
 Mary Barthelme, Juvenile Court, Chicago, Ill.
 J. H. Beveridge, Superintendent of Schools, Omaha, Nebr.
 Anne T. Bingham, Girls' Service League, New York City.
 Mrs. John Blair, Neurological Institute, New York City.
 Sanger Brown, 2d, Chairman State Commission for Mental Defectives, New York.
 J. E. Butterworth, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.
 Frederick P. Cabot, Juvenile Court, Boston, Mass.
 Edith Campbell, Vocation Bureau, Cincinnati, Ohio.
 Mabel Carney, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.
 C. C. Carstens, Child Welfare League of America, New York City.
 Emma Case, Department of Visiting Teachers, Rochester, N. Y.
 Randall J. Condon, Superintendent of Schools, Cincinnati, Ohio.
 John M. Cooper, Catholic University of America, Washington, D. C.
 Jane F. Culbert, National Committee on Visiting Teachers, New York.
 S. A. Courtis, Teachers College, Detroit, Mich.
 Anne Davis, Vocational Guidance Bureau, Chicago, Ill.
 Katherine Bement Davis, American Social Hygiene Association, New York City.
 Calvin Derrick, State Department of Institutions and Agencies, Trenton, N. J.
 Mrs. Susan M. Dorsey, Superintendent of Schools, Los Angeles, Calif.
 Mrs. W. F. Dummer, Chicago, Ill.
 Thomas D. Eliot, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.
 Mrs. Martha Falconer, American Social Hygiene Association, New York City.
 Elizabeth Farrell, Inspector of Ungraded Classes, New York City.
 Mrs. Sue Fratis, Supervisor of Special Education, Public Schools, Oakland, Calif.
 Harold Foght, University of South Dakota, Aberdeen, S. Dak.
 Robert H. Gault, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.
 Henry C. Gideon, Department of Attendance, Public Schools, Philadelphia, Pa.
 Bernard Glueck, New York City.
 Mary B. Harris, State School, Trenton, N. J.
 William Healy, Judge Baker Foundation, Boston, Mass.
 Sara M. Holbrook, Dept. of Education, University of Vermont, Burlington, Vt.
 Henry W. Holmes, School of Education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.
 Leta Hollingsworth, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.
 Franklyn Chase Hoyt, Children's Court, New York City.
 Fred M. Hunter, Superintendent of Schools, Oakland, Calif.
 Gladys G. Ide, Department of Special Education, Philadelphia, Pa.
 Elizabeth Irwin, Public Education Association, New York City.
 Olive M. Jones, President National Education Association, New York City.
 R. G. Jones, Superintendent of Schools, Cleveland, Ohio.
 Andrew G. Johnson, Berkshire Industrial School, New Canaan, N. Y.
 Charles H. Judd, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
 Marion E. Kenworthy, Bureau of Children's Guidance, New York City.
 George Kirchwey, New York School of Social Work, New York City.
 Paul Klapper, College of the City of New York, New York City.
 Julia Lathrop, Rockford, Ill.
 Sylvester R. Leahy, St. Vincent's Hospital, New York City.
 Frank Leavitt, Associate Superintendent of Schools, Pittsburgh, Pa.
 Arthur F. Lederle, Assistant Corporation Counsel, Detroit, Mich.
 M. C. Lefler, Superintendent of Schools, Lincoln, Nebr.
 Robert Leonard, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.
 E. C. Lindeman, New York City.
 William McAndrew, Superintendent of Schools, Chicago, Ill.
 Margaret McCoey, Associate Superintendent of Schools, New York City.
 Clinton P. McCord, Health Director, Board of Education, Albany, N. Y.
 Thomas J. McCormack, La Salle-Peru Township High School, La Salle, Ind.
 James F. McManus, Chief Attendance Officer, New York City.
 George B. Masslich, Superintendent Chicago and Cook County School for Boys.
 Florence Mater, Specialist in Corrective Education, Columbus, Ohio.
 Francis Maxfield, Director Bureau of Special Education, Harrisburg, Pa.
 E. L. Morgan, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.
 Henry C. Morrison, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
 J. Prentice Murphy, Philadelphia Children's Bureau, Philadelphia, Pa.
 Elizabeth Munger, Secretary Committee on the Care and Training of Delinquent Women and Girls, New York City.
 Florizel Myers, New York Children's Court, New York City.
 Howard W. Nudd, Public Education Association, New York City.
 Margaret E. Noonan, New York University, New York City.
 M. Adelaide Nutting, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.
 Howard Odum, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, N. C.
 John O'Grady, General Director, National Catholic Charities, Washington, D. C.
 Harry M. Overstreet, College of the City of New York, New York City.
 Valeria H. Parker, American Social Hygiene Association, New York City.
 Angelo Patri, Public School 45, Bronx, New York City.
 Anna Pratt, White-Williams Foundation, Philadelphia, Pa.
 Vernon M. Riegel, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Columbus, O.
 W. Carson Ryan, Jr., Swarthmore College, Swarthmore, Pa.

Kathryn Sellers, Juvenile Court, Washington, D. C.
 Barry C. Smith, General Director, Commonwealth Fund, New York City.
 Payson Smith, State Superintendent of Schools, Boston, Mass.
 John L. Stenquist, Bureau of Educational Measurements, Public Schools, Baltimore, Md.
 Jessie Taft, Department of Child Study, Children's Aid Society, Philadelphia, Pa.
 Graham R. Taylor, Joint Committee on Methods of Preventing Delinquency, New York.
 Lewis Terman, Leland Stanford University, Calif.
 Edward L. Thorndyke, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

Henry W. Thurston, New York School of Social Work, New York City.
 Hobart Todd, Superintendent State Agricultural and Industrial School, Industry, N. Y.
 Miriam Van Waters, Juvenile Court, Los Angeles, Calif.
 H. S. Weet, Superintendent of Schools, Rochester, N. Y.
 Frankwood E. Williams, National Committee for Mental Hygiene, New York City.
 Cora M. Winchell, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.
 Thomas D. Wood, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.
 Helen T. Woolley, Merrill Palmer School, Detroit, Mich.

A committee of fifteen, elected at this conference, arranged a second conference in conjunction with the meeting of the National Education Association Department of Superintendence in Cincinnati, in February, 1925, as a result of which it addressed the following communication:

To the Executive Committee of the National Education Association:

On July 3, 1924, in conjunction with the annual meeting of the National Education Association, held at Washington, D. C., a conference was called to consider the subject "What the Schools Can Do to Prevent Delinquency." This was held under the auspices of a temporary committee representing educators, psychologists, psychiatrists and social workers whose experience had convinced them of the necessity for closer cooperation between the school and the other professions dealing with problem children.

At this conference a committee of fifteen was elected, with Olive M. Jones as chairman, for the purpose of laying before the National Education Association a request to appoint as one of its standing committees a committee on behavior problem children.

On February 23, 1925, at the Hotel Gibson, Cincinnati, this committee of fifteen called into conference representatives of the national organizations listed on pages 261 and 262. At this meeting it was unanimously voted to request the Executive Committee of the National Education Association—

1. To appoint as one of its standing committees a committee on behavior problems.
2. To appropriate \$50 for the expense of such committee, and
3. To lay before the National Conference of Social Work the desirability of the appointment by that body of a similar standing committee to cooperate with the proposed standing committee of the National Education Association.

This request is presented because the committee recognizes that the school is the strategic place for the early diagnosis and treatment of behavior problems. All workers in the field of delinquency are increasingly conscious of the fact that modern scientific treatment of anti-social conduct is essentially educational or re-educational in character, and they believe that the appropriate time for treatment to be applied is when the first symptoms of maladjustment appear. They further believe that teachers and social workers are impressed with the serious amount of juvenile delinquency and with the youth of offenders generally, and also with the fact that many forms of adult maladjustment can be prevented if early symptoms are not neglected.

Because of the social and educational aspects of the treatment of problem children, they are also impressed with the necessity of closer coordination between the work of the schools and social organizations and the importance of arranging some means for the interchange of information and experience among these groups.

Respectfully submitted,

OLIVE M. JONES, Public School 120, New York City—Chairman.

HELEN T. WOOLLEY, Merrill-Palmer School, Detroit, Mich.

HENRY C. GIDEON, Bureau of Compulsory Education, Philadelphia, Pa.

HENRY W. THURSTON, New York School of Social Work, New York City.

JOHN M. COOPER, Catholic University, Washington, D. C.

BERNARD C. GLUECK, Psychiatrist, New York City.

WILLIAM McANDREWS, Supt. of Schools, Chicago, Ill.

MIRIAM VAN WATERS, Juvenile Court, Los Angeles, Calif.

MILLARD C. LEFLER, Supt. of Schools, Lincoln, Nebr.

THOMAS D. ELIOT, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.

JESSIE TAFT, Dept. of Child Study, Children's Aid Society, Philadelphia, Pa.

JANE F. CULBERT, National Committee on Visiting Teachers, New York City.

W. CARSON RYAN, JR., Swarthmore, Pa., Secretary.

List of National Organizations Invited to Send Representatives to the Conference Held in Cincinnati in February, 1925

National Education Association.

National Congress Parents and Teachers.

National Association of Visiting Teachers.

National Vocational Guidance Association.

American Association for the Advancement of Science (Sections on Education and Psychology).

American Association for the Study of the Feeble-minded.

American Psychological Association.

Joint Committee on Methods of Preventing Delinquency.

National Conference of Social Work.

National Conference on the Education of Truant, Backward, Dependent and Delinquent Children.

American Psychiatric Association.

National Committee for Mental Hygiene.

Child Welfare League of America.

Big Brothers and Big Sisters Association.

United States Bureau of Education.

United States Children's Bureau.

National Probation Association.

International Council for the Education of Exceptional Children.

National Association of Deans of Women.

Progressive Education Association.

National League of Compulsory Education Officials.

In response to this request, the executive committee of the National Education Association meeting in Cincinnati in February, 1925, authorized the president, Jesse H. Newlon, superintendent of public schools in Denver, Colorado, "to appoint a standing committee on behavior problems and also

to lay before the National Conference of Social Work the desirability of the appointment by that body of a similar standing committee to cooperate with the proposed standing committee of the National Education Association.

In bespeaking this cooperation Mr. Newlon wrote the following letter to William J. Norton, president of the National Conference of Social Work, during the annual meeting of the conference at Denver in June, 1925:

Last July, a group of specialists and those interested in the problem of delinquency, held a conference in Washington for a consideration of the subject, "What the Schools Can Do to Prevent Delinquency," This was held under the auspices of a temporary committee representing educators, psychologists, psychiatrists, and social workers whose experience had convinced them that there was a field for closer cooperation between the schools and the other professions dealing with the problem child. At this conference the National Education Association was requested to appoint a committee on behavior problem.

Last February in Cincinnati, the committee which had arranged for the regional conference, held a conference into which were called representatives of a number of national organizations concerned with the problem child. Again, the National Education Association was requested to appoint a committee on behavior problems, and a resolution was adopted requesting the National Conference of Social Work to appoint a standing committee to cooperate with the National Education Association committee.

I am convinced of the importance of this problem, and I am now in the process of appointing the National Education Association committee.

I am calling this matter to your attention at this time with the thought that at this meeting you may wish to take steps looking to the appointment of a committee representing the National Conference of Social Work. I hope the conference will decide to cooperate with the National Education Association in this important undertaking.

The National Education Association committee on the behavior problems of children was appointed by President Newlon in June, 1925, and was re-appointed by Mary McSkimmon, the following president of the National Education Association, in October, 1925.

The National Conference of Social Work at its meeting in Denver in June, 1925, acted promptly and favorably in response to President Newlon's letter and the President, Gertrude Vaile, announced the appointment of the members of the committee to represent the National Conference of Social Work.

The lists of the two committees appear on page 2 of this report.

The chairman of the National Education Association committee sent out in December, 1925, to a large number of superintendents of school systems selected to represent different sections of the country, the following letter:

To the Superintendents,
City School Systems.

Dear Sirs: The National Education Association has appointed a Committee on the Behavior Problem Child, realizing that the behavior problem is one of the most

serious questions before educators today, both because of its relationship to crime and vice conditions and because of its effect upon so many school adjustments.

This committee will meet in Washington on February 24, 1926, and desires certain information for consideration at that time. Will you be good enough to let us have your answer to the question stated later?

Knowing the multiplicity of similar appeals which go to busy superintendents, I suggest that you select some one in your school staff who may be fitted to obtain and give the information desired. In that event, will you be good enough to let me know the name and address of the person selected so that I may have it for future reference and also provide him or her with copies of our reports?

Information Now Needed—Believing that the schools are doing very much more on behalf of the behavior problem child than is currently known the National Education Association Committee desires to discover and list the activities in behalf of the behavior problem child now in progress in connection with the various school systems of the country. These range all the way from established bureaus, parental schools, etc., to individual efforts by interested teachers.

Can you let me have this information by February first? I shall be very grateful. Please address reply to me at 310 West 97th Street, New York City.

Very truly yours,

OLIVE M. JONES.

In February, 1926, a meeting of the National Education Association committee was held in Washington, D. C., in conjunction with the Department of Superintendence. Graham R. Taylor, chairman, and a number of other members of the National Conference of Social Work Committee, attended this meeting. After an interesting discussion of suggestions received from various members of the National Education Association Committee and a statement by Mr. Taylor of aims as recognized by the National Conference of Social Work Committee, the following points were agreed upon:

1. That a sub-committee of each of the two cooperating committees should be appointed by the chairman of each, empowered to act together as an executive committee.

2. That this joint executive committee should define the problem and formulate a program.

3. That the material received from the various superintendents of the country should be referred to the National Education Association Division of Research with a request that Mr. Norton the Director, secure an analysis and summarization for use by the joint executive committee of the two cooperating committees.

In accordance with this action, the replies from superintendents were referred to Margaret Alltucker, assistant director Division of Research, National Education Association. The joint executive committee desires to express in the highest possible terms its appreciation of the service rendered by Miss Alltucker.

A great mass of material was placed in Miss Alltucker's hands for analysis and report. She prepared for consideration by the joint executive committee:

1. A partial summary of current practices for caring for behavior problem children in our public schools.

2. A preliminary definition of the behavior problem child.

3. A statement of the problem of the cooperating committees.
4. A tentative outline of suggested activities of the two cooperating committees.

On May 14, 1926, a meeting was held in New York of the two subcommittees appointed to act as a joint executive committee. The statement prepared by the National Education Association, Division of Research was discussed and revised and at later meeting, held in New York on May 18, 1926, a revised report was adopted by the joint executive committee. The major part of the revision was the result of suggestions by Ralph P. Truitt, Director Division on Prevention of Delinquency of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene. The committees are greatly indebted to him.

Following its adoption by the joint executive committee, copies of the report were sent to all members of the two cooperating committees, together with a letter from the chairmen. The letters of the two chairmen follow:

To Members of the Committee
On the Behavior Problem Child,
National Education Association.

A joint meeting of the two committees on the Behavior Problem Child will be held in Cleveland, May 27th, during the meeting of the National Conference of Social Work, Hotel Cleveland, Parlor R—4 P. M. The report then prepared will be presented at the Philadelphia meeting of the National Education Association in June.

The National Education Association reports of committees for 1925 are already in print. I secured an extension of time until after the Cleveland meeting in order that the report of the Committee on Behavior Problem Children might include the conclusions we reach at this meeting on May 27th. The National Education Association Committee may be called to a meeting in Philadelphia, but it is doubtful as the general program and the Sesquicentennial activities are likely to interfere. You will understand, therefore, how important this meeting is.

We propose to meet about 4 P. M. Thursday, May 27th, and to remain together for the dinner hour. Please let me know whether you will attend. It will be best to write me at the Hotel Cleveland, Cleveland, Ohio, marking the letter "Please hold until arrival."

In accordance with the resolution passed in Washington authorizing the appointment of a subcommittee to cooperate with a similar subcommittee of the National Conference of Social Work, I have asked the following to serve:

M. C. LEFLER
FLORENCE MATEER

HOWARD W. NUDD
CORA M. WINCHELL
OLIVE M. JONES (Chairman of Main Committee)

The sub-committee of the National Conference of Social Work is as follows:

GRACE ABBOTT
CHARLES W. HOFFMAN

CHENEY C. JONES
RALPH P. TRUITT
GRAHAM R. TAYLOR (Chairman of Main Committee)

The subjects for discussion at the Cleveland meeting, May 27, will include the plan for cooperative work prepared by the two subcommittees and the results of a questionnaire sent out in January, analysis of which was made by the Division of Research, National Education Association.

Minutes of the committee meeting held in Washington during the February,

1926, meeting of the Department of Superintendence accompany this letter. Also some other material will be sent you in order that you may be familiar with the activities of the National Education Association Committee to date.

The National Conference of Social Work is very desirous of promoting joint action in behavior problems by teachers and social workers. Mr. Taylor, Chairman of the National Conference of Social Work Committee, has been very helpful during the past four months when I have been so greatly hampered by personal illness and by illness in my home. The Conference has also extended to me an invitation to present the school viewpoint at a joint session of the Division on Children and the Division on Mental Hygiene on Friday, May 28th.

Very truly yours,

OLIVE M. JONES, *Chairman National Education Association
Committee on the Behavior Problem Child.*

To the Members of the Committee
On the Behavior Problem of Children,
Appointed by the National Conference of Social Work:

In accordance with the authorization of the Committee at its last meeting, I have appointed a subcommittee to cooperate with a similar subcommittee from the National Education Association Committee in planning the cooperative work of the two bodies.

In going over the membership of our National Conference Committee I was impressed by the fact that it did not include a representative of the juvenile courts. It seems to me that this omission should be remedied, particularly in view of the important place which the juvenile court occupies in the cooperative relations which ought to exist between social work and the schools; and for the same reason I felt that a representative of the juvenile court when appointed upon our main committee should also be included in the subcommittee. In talking the matter over with Miss Vaile, president of the National Conference, it seemed both to her and to me that we would be fortunate if we could secure Judge Charles W. Hoffman of Cincinnati juvenile court as such a member. I am happy to report that he has accepted, and I am attaching hereto a copy of his interesting letter.

I am advised by Miss Jones that the personnel of the subcommittee of the National Education Association Committee is as follows:

M. C. LEFLER	HOWARD W. NUDD
OLIVE M. JONES, Chairman	FLORENCE MATEER
CORA M. WINCHELL	

The subcommittee of the National Conference Committee I have appointed, is as follows:

GRACE ABBOTT	CHENEY C. JONES
CHARLES W. HOFFMAN	GRAHAM ROMEYN TAYLOR, Chairman
	RALPH P. TRUITT

A meeting of these two subcommittees was held on May 14 in New York City attended by Miss Jones, Professor Winchell, Mr. Nudd, Dr. Truitt and Mr. Taylor. It was decided to hold a joint meeting of the two main committees in Cleveland during the National Conference of Social Work, May 26-June 2, at which the two subcommittees expect to submit a tentative draft of a memorandum outlining a plan of cooperative work. An effort will be made to send copies of this memorandum to all members of the two main committees in advance of the Cleveland meeting.

A study of the National Conference program seems to indicate that the time

least affected by conflicting appointments, and otherwise most convenient, is Thursday afternoon, May 27. It is suggested that we meet at 4 P. M. promptly and plan to remain in session through the dinner hour. Kindly let me know whether you can be present.

It was suggested by members of the National Conference Committee that, in line with the purpose of the two committees to promote interchange of views between school people and social workers, arrangement should be made whereby on the program of the National Conference Miss Jones be invited to discuss the relations of the school and the social worker. This suggestion was heartily welcomed by Miss Vaile as president of the Conference. Ruth Taylor, as chairman of the Conference Division on Children, and Ralph P. Truitt, as chairman of the Conference Division on Mental Hygiene, gladly extended an invitation to Miss Jones, which she has accepted, to be one of the speakers at a joint session of these two divisions which will be held on Friday, May 28, at 11 A. M.

Very truly yours,

GRAHAM ROMEYN TAYLOR,
*Chairman National Conference Committee
on Behavior Problems of Children.*

The report of the joint executive committee was discussed at the meeting held in Cleveland, May 27, 1926, and after considerable further revision it was adopted by the cooperating committees in joint session and is presented to the membership of the two organizations with the hope that it will be approved and the continuance of the committees' work be authorized.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON REVISION OF DEPARTMENTS

RANDALL J. CONDON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, CINCINNATI, OHIO
CHAIRMAN

Your committee on Revision of Departments reports that it has had under consideration during the year various petitions, requests, and recommendations for the consolidation of existing departments and the organization of additional departments.

As the result of this consideration of these matters we recommend:

First—That the Kindergarten and Primary Departments be reorganized as the Kindergarten-Primary Department.

Second—That a department of lip-reading be authorized. This will be a small department but it is composed of very earnest people who have presented a petition signed by three hundred members of the National Education Association. They have held successful conferences for three years. Having fully complied with the conditions set up in the by-laws for the organization of departments, we recommend that this petition be granted and the department authorized.

Third—That the petitions for the organization of departments of Art and Nature Study be received. That the petitioners be authorized to hold

conferences for three succeeding years in connection with the meetings of the National Education Association, and that the petitioners be encouraged to expect a favorable action if they are able to comply with the conditions in the bylaws.

Fourth—Several petitions have been received for the organization of a Department of Higher Instruction. We look with favor upon the organization of such a department, but recommend that action be deferred at this time until the plans for such an organization shall become more clearly defined.

Fifth—We recommend that the bylaws be suspended and that the Directors authorize the organization of a Department of Junior High School Principals, which shall include not only principals, but all those directly engaged in the administration of junior high schools, including those connected with the development of the work in colleges of education.

Sixth—We recommend that a committee composed of the chairman of the Committee on the Revision of Departments, Carroll G. Pearse, and the chairman of the Board of Trustees, Fred M. Hunter, together with the President and Secretary of the National Education Association, be authorized to confer with the officers of the National Association of Secondary School Principals for the purpose of devising a plan whereby an association of the Department of High School Principals of the National Education Association may be organized.

Seventh—We recommend that the Committee be continued for the ensuing year to make a further study of the subject in order that a clear cut and definite policy may be adopted for the future, regarding department organizations, sections, conferences, and allied organizations meeting with the National Education Association.

REPORT OF THE RESEARCH ADVISORY COMMITTEE

J. A. C. CHANDLER, PRESIDENT, COLLEGE OF WILLIAM AND MARY
WILLIAMSBURG, VA., CHAIRMAN

This committee does not have the control of the Research Division and does not in any way direct the activities of that division. Its duties are performed when it reports to this Association what the Research Division has done and wants to accomplish.

The committee wishes to go on record as being greatly delighted with the personnel of the Division, and to inform the members of the National Education Association that in the opinion of the committee the research work is in most competent hands.

The chairman of the committee has several times advised with the Division and gone over with the director and his assistants its work and plans.

From a report submitted by the Director of Research your committee submits for your consideration the following:

Division of time—The time and energy of the Division of Research during 1925-26 has been divided as follows:

1. 40 percent to independent research investigations and the preparation of the Research Bulletin.
2. 20 percent to supplying information and other service to members in the field.
3. 15 percent to research activities of the Association's Departments.
4. 15 percent to work for which other Headquarters Divisions are primarily responsible.
5. 10 percent to research activities of the Association's Committees.

Work accomplished—The Division was primarily responsible or co-operated in the following types of work:

1. Preparation of the following Research Bulletins:

- a. *Taking Stock of the Schools*. Ten thousand copies of this Education Week issue of the Bulletin were printed. All but 200 copies have been distributed.
- b. *Keeping Pace with the Advancing Curriculum*. Two editions and a total of 23,000 copies of this issue have been printed and already distributed. A third reprinting of 5,000 copies is now on the press.
- c. *The Ability of the States to Support Education*. 16,000 copies printed—just made available for distribution.
- d. *Facts on State School Finance*. Will shortly go to press.
- e. *Major School Issues for Teachers and Laymen*. This is now being prepared and will be issued as the September number for use during Education Week.

2. In cooperation with the Association's Departments, the Division accomplished these pieces of work:

- a. Worked with Department of Superintendence in developing the Co-operative Plan for Curriculum Revision and assisted in preparation of the Fourth Yearbook, *The Nation at Work on the Public School Curriculum*. The Research Division's work is described in this yearbook as follows:

"Working under the leadership of the Commission, the Research Division of the National Education Association has supplied the machinery necessary for the preparation of such a document. This division was responsible for drafting Part II, and for assembling, unifying, and editing the entire yearbook."

- b. Conducted the Educational Research Service in cooperation with the Department of Superintendence. This is a self-supporting service financed by 151 subscribing cities at an annual cost of \$25. This service is growing rapidly. Its further development will reduce the percentage of the Research Division budget going to item 3, listed below.
- c. Completed study on teacher rating for Department of Classroom teachers.
- d. Co-operated in a research study with the National Council of Education.
- e. Aided in preparation of certain sections of the Fifth Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals.

3. Correspondence and information service. It is estimated that the correspondence section of the Division answered approximately 7,500 letters, mainly from National Education Association members requesting

information on a wide variety of subjects. Many of these letters involved the assembling of exact data and were, therefore, time consuming.

4. The Division made these definite contributions to the development of the work of other Headquarters Divisions:

- a. Prepared a sixty-four page pamphlet on *The Education Bill* and other material for Legislative Division.
- b. Contributed 5 pages of material for the *Journal* and aided in the development of the Electro-mat-slide Service. There has already been prepared a series of articles, one or more of which is to appear in each issue of the *Journal*, beginning 1926-27.
- c. The library of the Association is financed out of the Research Division budget both as to personnel and equipment. This library gives daily service to all Headquarters Divisions.

5. The Division has worked with a number of National Education Association committees.

- a. It cooperated with the Committee of One Hundred, on Teachers Retirement Allowances, in preparing the report presented at the Philadelphia Summer meeting. This report of 72 printed pages will later be reprinted as an issue of the Research Bulletin.
- b. Data has also been collected for use in the report of the Committee on Teacher Tenure.

Further development of the work of the Research Division—It is believed that the policies that have guided the development of the Division's work to date should be continued. As additional support for the work becomes available, the percent of its energy going for independent investigations should be increased. This should not mean, however, that opportunities for cooperative research such as that carried on during the past year with the Department of Superintendence in the curriculum field and with the Committee of One Hundred on Teacher Retirement Allowances should be overlooked.

The independent research conducted by the Division should not be scattered over too many fields. Two fields among the others should receive special attention: (a) school finance; (b) personnel problems.

Several pieces of work were completed and others were begun in the field of school finance during the year.

Work should be initiated in the personnel field during 1926-27. The scientific study of how to recruit and keep at maximum efficiency a capable personnel for the teaching profession has only just begun. The Research Division has outlined a series of investigations that might be made in this field with great benefit to the profession and our Association.

In order that work may be commenced at once in this important field, one full-time professionally trained person, with the rank of an Assistant Director should be added to the Research Division staff during the year 1926-27.

In order that more work may be done in the Research Division, we recommend most heartily that an effort be made to increase the appropriation to this division, at least \$5000 for the ensuing year.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON COMMITTEES OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

JESSE H. NEWLON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, DENVER, COLO.
CHAIRMAN

The Committee on Committees was appointed a year ago on the recommendation of the Executive Committee, approved by the Representative Assembly. The creation of new departments of the Association, the increasing complexity of its work, and the limited time at the disposal of the Representative Assembly made evident the need for a better organization and direction of our work.

The Committee on Committees is in reality a Convention Committee. It is our function to consider existing committees and proposals for the creation of new committees; and to make recommendations to the Executive Committee and the Representative Assembly as to how the committee work can be most effectively apportioned and organized. The problem is not merely one of committees that report to the Representative Assembly, but it is one of more effectively integrating the work of the departments and the National Council of Education with that of the general Association.

If committee work is to be intelligently planned, the appointment of committees should be based on general principles that meet the approval of this Assembly. Your committee therefore submits for your consideration the following general principles to govern the creation of committees and commissions:

1. In general, committees should not be appointed in fields already covered by departments of the Association. The Representative Assembly must, of course, reserve to itself the right to conduct investigations in any field, but the tendency to create committees to deal with specific problems on which departments are already working ought to be curbed. Only in exceptional cases should the Representative Assembly invade the field of a department through the appointment of a committee.

2. The average life of committees should be shortened and the number of committees should be restricted. There has been a tendency for committees to prolong their work year after year. Inspection of the programs of the Representative Assembly for the past six years will, I think, convince anyone that there has been too much committee reporting and too little discussion of important issues. This can be prevented only by restricting the number of committees that are to report to the Representative Assembly in any given year and by encouraging committees to complete their work as quickly as possible. There are, of course, exceptions to this general rule. So long as the Association has a legislative program it must have a legisla-

tive commission. As long as we continue to cooperate with teachers in other lands, there must be a committee on international relationships. Such a task as that of developing a code of professional ethics can not be completed within a brief space of time. These, however, are exceptions to the general rule and the life of committees should not extend, in most cases, over from one to three years, and only in exceptional cases over four or five years.

3. The reorganized National Council of Education should serve as an integrating force in our Association. There are at least three ways in which the Council can perform this function:

a. The Council can better direct certain types of research than can the Representative Assembly.

b. The Council should study the problems of our Association and make recommendations as to how our efforts can be made most effective.

c. The Council should study the findings of educational research with a view to reconciling apparent discrepancies and to the interpretation of these findings in the light of a working philosophy of education. In a period of prodigious research such a service of integration constitutes a major educational need.

4. In the opinion of your committee, the Board of Directors, constituting a representative body of more than fifty members, should play a far more important rôle in the life of the Association than it does at the present time. This body is small enough to permit of informal and extended discussion. It is the governing body of the Association when the Representative Assembly is not in session. Some committees now reporting to the Representative Assembly should report to the Board of Directors. The Board of Directors in turn will make recommendations to this body.

5. Frequently we have had before the Representative Assembly extended discussions of printed reports. In most instances these reports have dealt with technical problems and not with broad general policies. In order to save the time of the Representative Assembly, discussion by chairman of printed reports dealing with technical problems should be rigidly limited.

6. Many committee reports contain recommendations to be voted upon by the Representative Assembly. Delegates have frequently voted in the dark because they have not had before them in printed form the recommendations on which they are voting. It should be required that printed summaries of all recommendations to be voted on at a given session of the Representative Assembly be placed in the hands of delegates at the beginning of the meeting.

7. For some years committees of the general association have been studying such problems as health, the teaching of democracy and moral education. These committees have performed an exceptionally good service. The conditions that have existed in the past ten years have made their work necessary. It is the judgment of your committee, however, that the time has come when we should fully realize that character-building and health education are as much a part of our educational program as the teaching of arithmetic or reading, that these are technical problems that can best be studied by committees of departments or of the National Council of Educa-

tion rather than by committees of the Representative Assembly. On the other hand, we recognize that many do not understand that the teachers of America believe that every activity of the school should contribute directly to the achievement of the great objectives of moral and civic education. We therefore recommend that the Committee on Resolutions be requested to prepare a resolution or statement that when approved by this body will be the official pronouncement of the stand of the Association on these two important questions. The attitude of the teachers on these problems should be made as clear as the morning sun.

I shall now briefly recapitulate our general recommendations:

1. The work of departments should not be duplicated by committees of the Representative Assembly.

2. The average life of committees should be shortened.

3. The National Council of Education should take over the direction of some of the research work now done by committees of this body and should serve as an integrating force in American education.

4. The work of the Board of Directors should be made much more important.

5. Comments of committee chairmen before the Representative Assembly on printed reports should, in most cases, be brief.

6. Recommendations to be voted on by the Representative Assembly should be placed in the hands of the delegates in printed form.

7. The Association should make a pronouncement of its stand on the work of the schools in moral and citizenship education.

With these general principles in mind, I shall now give our recommendation on the existing committees of the Association, but shall not mention those committees provided for in the Charter and By-Laws:

Committees

Problem of Retirement Allowances: Continue the Committee.

Rural Teacher Problems: Refer to the Department of Rural Education.

Tenure: Continue.

Classroom Teacher's Problems: Refer to the Department of Classroom Teachers.

American School Program: The Executive Committee should decide whether this Commission will be continued.

Ethics of the Profession: Continue.

International Relationships: Continue.

Legislative Commission: Continue.

Preliminary Committee on Resolutions: If a recommendation to be considered later in the morning is adopted, this Committee will no longer be needed.

Home for Retired Teachers: This Committee should become a Committee of the Board of Directors and Executive Committee and should report through them to the Representative Assembly.

Revision of Departments of the National Education Association: Refer to the Board of Directors.

Teaching of Democracy: The work of this Committee should be concluded at an early date.

Behavior Problem Children: Refer to the National Council of Education.

Child Labor: The legislative aspects of the work of this Committee should be referred to the Legislative Commission; any further research by the Association in this field should be conducted by the National Council of Education.

Co-Inclusive Membership: This Committee should be discontinued as its work will now be taken up by a small committee of the Board of Directors.

Community Relations: This Committee should make a final report and be discontinued.

Editorial Council: This Committee should report to the Board of Directors and Executive Committee.

Educational Nomenclature: The work of this Committee should be referred to the National Council of Education.

Health Education: The work of this Committee should be referred to the Department of School Health and Physical Education.

Joint Committee on School Museum Relations: This is a new field that should have the consideration of the general Association and it is recommended that this Committee be continued for one year.

Research Advisory Committee: Refer to the Executive Committee.

Standard, Requirements and Credits of Teachers in Service: It is recommended that this Committee should become a joint committee of the Department of Teachers Colleges and the Department of Classroom Teachers.

Visual Education: At an early date the work of this Committee should be discontinued, but because of certain important problems that are pending before the Committee it should be continued for the present.

In considering this report you should bear in mind that the major problem presented to us is that of conserving the time of the Representative Assembly in order that there may be a maximum of opportunity for the discussion of the major issues with which our Association is concerned. William F. Russell on Monday morning commented to the effect that our educational meetings seem to be characterized by committee reporting while the British devote more time to discussion. Committees are necessary. We would not minimize their function. The work of the Association can not be carried on effectively without them, but they should be more sparingly used.

Lest it may seem to some that this is a movement in the direction of taking responsibility away from the Representative Assembly, your committee desires to point out that the Representative Assembly should not be so encumbered by the consideration of technical and detail matters that it will have inadequate opportunity for deliberation and decision relative to issues that inherently belong to a policy-determining body.

In conclusion, our Committee wishes to make three specific recommendations:

1. That the Representative Assembly approve the general principles laid down in this report.
2. That the final disposition of existing committees be determined by the President and the Executive Committee in the light of these general principles and after consideration of the specific recommendations regarding particular committees contained in this report.
3. That the programs of the Representative Assembly be planned to provide a maximum opportunity for the discussion of those issues fundamentally related to the development of the policies of the Association.

REPORT OF THE NECROLOGY COMMITTEE

ERNEST L. CRANDALL, DIRECTOR OF LECTURES AND VISUAL EDUCATION
PUBLIC SCHOOLS, NEW YORK CITY, CHAIRMAN

There has recently taken place in the city of Chicago what is probably the most notable religious assemblage America has ever witnessed, possibly the greatest religious gathering in all history. On that occasion, President Coolidge, addressing Cardinal Mundelein, the American sponsor for the Eucharistic Congress, wrote in part as follows:

Our country has long been under the imputation of putting too much emphasis on material things. Perhaps we have been the subject of that kind of criticism not so much because we are really more interested in material prosperity than others, but because in that direction we have been more successful than others.

But no doubt a most conclusive answer to such criticism lies in the fact that material prosperity can not be secured unless it rests upon spiritual realities. It is impossible to create a commercial system which is not built on credit, confidence, and faith. Without the elements of honor and honesty there can be no economic advance. If the requirements of character be withdrawn from our business structure the whole fabric would collapse.

The same principle applies to our government. The day of the despot has passed. No country attempts to rely on force, but on reason, to justify its institutions. No government can long endure unless its people are convinced that it is a righteous government. If our country has achieved any political success, if our people are attached to the Constitution, it is because our institutions are in harmony with their religious beliefs.

It is for these reasons that the religious life of the nation is so important. Its free exercise is guaranteed by the fundamental law of the land. If America is advancing economically, if it is the abiding place of justice and freedom, it is because of the deep religious convictions of its people.

These words of our president were clearly not intended as a tribute to any particular faith, but as an acknowledgment of the potency of faith itself, as a recognition of the deep and abiding religious sense of our people, as a justification, perhaps, of that national motto at which our detractors are prone to scoff, but which is nevertheless ingrained in our national character and abundantly manifested in our national history, "In God We Trust."

We are a people and not a mere conglomeration of races, a nation and not a mere melting pot, and the best evidence of this is the fact that, as a people, we have developed certain fundamental traits and characteristics which both our historians and our critics have found it easy to recognize. Among these characteristics must be classed, not only the natural piety referred to by our President in his letter, but such cardinal qualities as a love of justice, an attachment for freedom, and not least of all, a passion for enlightenment.

It is true that sometimes our devotion to justice seems to be obscured by our indifference to the law's delays and to the shortcomings of our judicial system, but it manifests itself in a love of fair play that can hardly be gainsaid by our severest critics and that crops out in our sports, in our business transactions and in our foreign relations. It is true also that our love of freedom might seem to be impugned by the tameness with which we submit, superficially at times, to inordinate regulation. But no student of our history could challenge our passion for enlightenment. If there is one outstanding characteristic of American parenthood, it is the yearning to see each generation farther advanced than the last on the high road to knowledge. The monument of this devotion to the ideals of culture, as we have apprehended them, subsists in our great chain of public school systems, unparalleled by any other group of institutions anywhere else in the world or in any era of history. It is this one characteristic also, which has been, is, and will remain the saving grace by which all the other positive virtues upon which our institutions rest shall be forever preserved.

From the days when the great father of our country, in a message to Congress, said "Knowledge is in every country the surest basis of public happiness"; when Jefferson, author of the Declaration of Independence and founder of the University of Virginia, wrote to Washington, "It is an axiom in my mind that our liberty can never be safe but in the hands of the people themselves, and that, too, of the people with a certain degree of instruction. This is the business of the state to effect and on a general plan"; aye, from a still earlier date, when the character of John Hancock was moulded by an Irish schoolmaster imported by a Puritan community in its solicitude for the enlightenment of its offspring; down through the days when Horace Mann was awakening a national consciousness of the need of free public education; down to the present moment when the little old red schoolhouse has been replaced so largely by rural school plants that would have been the envy of some wealthy municipalities but a few decades ago, the flame of the love of learning and faith in its efficacy as a builder of human character and a shaper of human destiny has never flickered.

This is the flame that the American teacher has tended. This is the part that the American teacher has played in the preservation of our republic, for I repeat that the cherishing of this flame, the stimulation and perpetuation of this devotion, has made for the conservation and preservation of all that is best in American life and institutions.

It is not only fitting then that we should pause each year in our delibera-

tions to recall for a moment brothers and sisters who have been taken from our ranks, but it is most eminently fitting that on this occasion when our nation is celebrating the sesquicentennial of its independence and its establishment as a nation, we should pay our tribute to the men and women who, in the classrooms of America for one hundred and fifty years, have helped to keep alive those high faiths, those lofty aspirations, those deep devotions and those stalwart principles which have made our nation what it is.

Accordingly I propose, my friends, that at a signal from the chairman, we here assembled shall rise and, standing for a moment with bowed heads, shall supplicate the God of nations not only to bring to their richly merited reward our brothers and sisters who have passed on, but to let fall his blessing in fullest measure upon the labors of those of us who remain to carry on His work among our people.

Prominent Educators Who Have Died During the School Year 1925-26

Alabama—T. W. Palmer, Montevallo; teacher, University of Alabama; President of Alabama College; member of State Council of Education; chairman of State Board of Vocational Education; active leader of the Alabama Education Association and for many years an active member of the National Education Association.

F. J. Cowart, Troy; legislator, editor, City and County Superintendent; teacher in the Troy Normal School for 21 years. (Not a member of the N. E. A.)

Arizona—A. O. Neal, Tucson; Registrar of University of Arizona; Professor of Rural Education; Inspector of High Schools, Indiana; Expert for a number of years in U. S. Bureau of Education and an active member of the N. E. A. since 1919.

Colorado—James H. Baker, Colorado Springs; former President of the University of Colorado; member and chairman of important committees of National Council of the N. E. A. (A member of the N. E. A.)

District of Columbia—H. M. Johnson, Washington; teacher in Eastern High School for a number of years, and later its principal; Supervising Principal of the Seventh Division, City Public Schools, at the time of his death. He was in the teaching profession for thirty-five years and a member of the N. E. A. most of those years.

Florida—Sexton Johnson, Tampa; City Superintendent of Schools; One of the most efficient Educators in the state; was a member of the N. E. A.

Kentucky—Arthur Y. Ford, Louisville; President of the University of Louisville Former Managing Editor of Courier-Journal; President of the Kentucky Commission at St. Louis World's Fair; Vice-President of Fidelity and Columbia Trust Company. (Not a member of the N. E. A.)

Massachusetts—(1) S. V. Cole, Norton; Professor of Rhetoric and Latin, Bowdoin College for several years; Pastor of Trinity Congressional Church, Taunton, Mass.; President of Wheaton Seminary 1887-1912; President of Wheaton College 1912 until his death. (Not a member of the N. E. A.)

(2) George F. Jewett, Newton; Principal of "Mount Ida School for Girls," of which he was the founder; Principal of Marlboro High School 1888-1889; Principal of Rutgers Grammar School, New Jersey, 1889-1890; Principal of Rargen High School, Youngstown, Ohio, 1891-1901; Assistant-Principal, La Salle Seminary 1901-1902. (Not a member of the N. E. A.)

(3) Benjamin H. Sanborn, Wellesley; Publisher of text books; President of

Benjamin H. Sanborn and Company Corporation; Published more than 200 text books. (Not a member of the N. E. A.)

Minnesota—(1) Major Albert W. Clancy, Minneapolis; American Book Company; One of the oldest and best known members of the N. E. A.; A worker and leader in Education for more than fifty years. (A member of the N. E. A.)

(2) Caroline Robbins, Mankato; Critic in Teachers College for 31 years. Was one of the truly great teachers. Was joint author of Robbins & Row Language Series. Member of the N. E. A. for more than 20 years.

(3) Albert W. Guillet, Minneapolis; Principal, Elementary School. N. E. A. Member. His was a life of real service to the teachers and children.

(4) L. G. Higbie, Chatfield; Superintendent of Schools. Was an N. E. A. member and well known in the state.

(5) Phoebe Greeley, Stillwater; Classroom teacher for more than 40 years in home city. Well known throughout the state and considered one of its most efficient teachers. (Not a member of the N. E. A.)

New Mexico—John Vaughn, Las Cruces; Dean of New Mexico Agricultural College; Co-Editor of New Mexico School Review; Secretary of the State Teachers Association. (Not a member of the N. E. A.)

Nebraska—A. L. Caviness, University Place; Leader in State Teachers Association—at one time its President; Prominent City Superintendent of Schools; President of Peru State Normal School. A member of the N. E. A. for more than twenty years.

New York—James Byrnes, Examiner, member of the Original Board of Examiners appointed when the Greater New York school system was created, under William H. Maxwell, Cecil Kidd, District Superintendent for many years.

North Dakota—(1) Senator E. F. Ladd, Fargo; Teacher, College President, U. S. Senator; Formerly Head Professor in Department of Chemistry, Agricultural College, Fargo; President of Agricultural College; U. S. Senator from North Dakota. Died in Washington, D. C., July, 1925. (Not a member of N. E. A.)

(2) E. J. Babcock, Grand Forks; Dean of College of Engineering State University. At one time Acting President. One of the best beloved and oldest teachers in the University. (Not a member of the N. E. A.)

Ohio—John W. Zeller, Findlay; Superintendent of Schools, Findlay, Ohio; thirty-two years State School Commissioner, 1909 to 1911; Lecturer in State Normal College. His was a magnanimous soul. (Not a member of the N. E. A.)

Oregon—(1) Prince E. Campbell, Eugene; Formerly President of Oregon State Normal School; President, State University of Oregon for over twenty years. His name is written large in the history of Oregon education. (Not a member of the N. E. A.)

(2) Charles E. Mulkey, Coquilló, County Superintendent of Schools, seven years. His outstanding service was in the direction of consolidation of school districts. He was President of the County Superintendents Association of Oregon at the time of his death. (Not a member of the N. E. A.)

(3) F. A. Golden, Marshfield; City Superintendent of Schools for twenty years. A year ago, an athletic field was named "Golden Field," out of recognition for Mr. Golden's services in the educational interests of the community. (Not a member of the N. E. A.)

Pennsylvania—(1) Mary Carmiddy, Johnstown; A veteran teacher in the Johnstown Public Schools. She was the first woman principal in Johnstown. As a leader, teacher and advisor Miss Carmiddy exerted a beneficent influence over all with whom she came in contact. (Not a member of the National Education Association.)

- (2) Henry Gibbons, Emeritus Professor of Latin Literature at the University of Pennsylvania. Died, January 28, at University Hospital at the age of 77 years. (Not a member of the National Education Association.)
- (3) Wm. H. Hench, Mechanicsburg; Prominent in Educational work; Was Principal of Schools for a period exceeding thirty years. (Not a member of the National Education Association.)
- (4) Effie Zweig, Girardville; Teacher of English in the Girardville High School. (Not a member of the National Education Association.)
- (5) Melissa L. Bloom, Danville; Miss Bloom gave fifty-one years of her life to service in the Public Schools. (Not a member of the National Education Association.)
- (6) A. G. C. Smith, Media; Superintendent of Schools of Delaware County. (For more than twenty years a member of the National Education Association.)
- (7) Catherine Haifleigh, Harrisburg; Miss Haifleigh was a member of the National Education Association and active as a member of the Committee on Character Education, N. E. A.

Rhode Island—(1) Thomas William Bicknell, President of the National Education Association in 1884; Commissioner of Public Schools in Rhode Island from 1869-1875 at which time he resigned to become Editor of the *New England Journal of Education*.

South Carolina—W. D. Melton, Columbia; President of University of South Carolina. During the three years of his Presidency the student body grew from 600 to 1500. (Not a member of the National Education Association.)

Virginia—Cornelia Storrs Taylor, Richmond; Miss Taylor devoted fifty-two years of life's duties, shedding a sweet and lasting influence upon the hearts and minds of so many children. Her life has been one of service. (Not a member of the National Education Association.)

Wisconsin—(1) John F. Sims, Stevens Point; Wisconsin State Director of the National Education Association; President of Stevens Point State Normal School. Dr. Sims was the sixth to take out Life Membership in the National Education Association. Very active in National Education Association work. He was chairman of the Child Labor Committee.

- (2) M. S. Frawley, Eau Claire; Once County Superintendent of Schools, Dane County; Later appointed principal of Eau Claire high school which position he held thirty-three years. (Not a member of the National Education Association.)
- (3) Fletcher A. Parker, founder of The School of Music at the University of Wisconsin. He was a member of the University Faculty for almost fifty years. (Not a member of the National Education Association.)
- (4) T. H. Campion, Milwaukee; Professor of Agriculture at University of Wisconsin. He was active in agricultural organizations throughout his life. (Not a member of the National Education Association.)
- (5) Lewis H. Clark, River Falls; Superintendent of City Schools; State Inspector of High Schools; Active in affairs of the Teachers' Association. He was one of the oldest members in the Normal School system and one of the most useful and progressive and a life director of the National Education Association.

States Having None to Report, 1925-1926

Arkansas	Montana
California	Nevada
Connecticut	New Hampshire
Delaware	New Jersey
Georgia	New York
Idaho	North Carolina
Illinois	Oklahoma
Indiana	South Dakota
Iowa	Tennessee
Kansas	Texas
Louisiana	Utah
Maine	Vermont
Maryland	Washington
Michigan	West Virginia
Mississippi	Wyoming
Missouri	

At the meeting of the Committee on Necrology at Indianapolis, 1925, the following states were represented by:

ARIZONA—Valeree Menhennet, Mesa,
 COLORADO—George L. Watson, Denver,
 FLORIDA—G. Elmer Wilber, Jacksonville,
 IDAHO—Charlotte Pond, Twin Falls,
 INDIANA—Margaret Plummer, Wabash,
 IOWA—H. M. Taylor, Shenandoah,
 KANSAS—Cora M. Showalter, Kansas City,
 KENTUCKY—Elsa Slutz, Louisville,
 NEW JERSEY—Sarah L. Perry, Trenton,
 NEW YORK—Ernest L. Crandall,
 OHIO—H. B. Turner, Warren,
 OKLAHOMA—Perry Carmichael, Tulsa.
 TEXAS—Evalyn B. Sterling, San Antonio,
 UTAH—George R. Archibald, Salt Lake City,
 VERMONT—Bessie Thomas, Woodstock,
 VIRGINIA—Hannah Cohn, Richmond,
 WISCONSIN—Lillia E. Johnson, Eau Claire,
 HAWAII—Katherine Cook, Hanalei,
 DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA—Emma A. Jensen, Washington, D. C.

*REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON CO-INCLUSIVE
MEMBERSHIP¹*

It is the sense of your Committee on Co-Inclusive Membership that all the teachers of the United States should be bound together as an organic body, and that this can be attained only by a plan of membership which will include affiliation with the local, state, and national associations. The details of such a plan we believe will make necessary the revision of the Constitution and Bylaws of the National Education Association. To this end we offer the following resolution:

Be It Resolved, that a committee of five be appointed by the Executive Committee to draft such amendments as will make possible the inauguration of a co-inclusive membership policy in local, state, and national teachers associations and that the amendments shall conform to and embody the following principles:

First, all membership in the National Education Association shall be conditioned on membership in the state and local associations of which the member would naturally be a part.

Second, no member of the National Association shall be counted more than once in the apportionment of delegates to the Delegate Assembly of the National Education Association.

Third, delegate representation in the National Education Association shall be based upon and apportioned according to the total National Education Association membership within a given state.

Fourth, delegates to the National Education Association shall be elected from the membership of the National Education Association in the various states and in such manner as shall be agreed upon by the various state organizations and the Executive Committee of the National Education Association.

Be It Further Resolved, that the aforesaid Committee of Five be instructed to submit these amendments through the legal channels and in a legal way and in such time as will permit their adoption or rejection at the next annual meeting of the National Education Association.

¹ Presented to the Board of Directors and referred to a special committee for further study with instructions to report at the next annual meeting of the Association.

National Council of Education

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION was organized in 1880, growing out of a paper read by Thomas W. Bicknell before the Department of Superintendence. See *Proceedings* 1880:90-94. The active membership of the Council consists of 60 members chosen by the Council; 60 chosen by the Board of Directors of the Association; and three chosen by each of the Departments of the Association. The list is published in the *Proceedings* in alternate years and is found in the 1925 volume, pages 310-314. For constitution and bylaws, see *Proceedings*, 1906:608-11. The Council meets twice each year, once in February and once in June. The officers of the Council for the year 1926-27 are: *President*, Henry Lester Smith, Dean, School of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.; *Vice-President*, Florence M. Hale, State Agent for Rural Education, State Department of Education, Augusta, Maine; *Secretary*, Adelaide S. Baylor, Chief, Home Economics Education Service, Federal Board for Vocational Education, Washington, D. C.; *Executive Committee*, Anna Laura Force, Principal, Broadway Junior High School, Denver, Colo.; George W. Child, Supt. of Schools, Salt Lake City, Utah; A. J. Matthews, President, Tempe Normal School, Tempe, Ariz. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier *Proceedings* as follows:

1880: 90-94	1892:745-806	1901:349-499	1910:307-375	1918:135-149
1884: Pt. 3:1-67	1893:925	1902:306-408	1911:331-476	1919:675-739
1885: 405-551	1894:593-678	1903:301-376	1912:499-605	1920:107-109
1886: 261-331	1895:430-509	1904:333-377	1913:355-424	1921:269-368
1887: 257-328	1896:393-470	1905:271-340	1914:293-404	1922:349-574
1888: 253-321	1897:317-583	1906:607-623	1915:527-627	1923:425-551
1889: 347-440	1898:489-588	1907:329-454	1916:195-287	1924:350-428
1890: 289-364	1899:380-529	1908:313-500	1917:129-219	1925:266-336
1891: 275-378	1900:297-364	1909:331-435		

FRESH AIR IN THE SCHOOLROOM—ABSTRACT

C. E. A. WINSLOW, CHAIRMAN, NEW YORK STATE COMMISSION ON VENTILATION, YALE UNIVERSITY, NEW HAVEN, CONN.

IT is today agreed that the primary objective of ventilation is to maintain a temperature of 68° or below with a moderate but not excessive humidity and degree of air movement and the older idea of diluting hypothetical poisons has been universally abandoned. It is also quite generally agreed that the fan systems of mechanical ventilation now required by law in many cities often fail to attain a satisfactory ideal.

The remedy suggested by the exhaustive experiments of the New York State Commission on Ventilation is to abandon mechanical systems entirely in the average schoolroom to admit fresh air by the windows over deflectors which will control drafts and temper it by radiators placed below the windows themselves and to permit the heated air to escape through gravity exhaust ducts above. The majority of ventilating engineers maintain that the teacher cannot be trusted to operate such a system and meet every criticism by counseling still further elaborations of mechanical devices. We believe that the New York studies in scores of schoolrooms under actual conditions of occupancy demonstrate beyond question that window-gravity ventilation is not only feasible but infinitely superior to fan ventilation from the standpoint of both health and comfort. We urge the educational authorities of the country to try out this simple and economical procedure approved by the American Public Health Association and all competent physiological authorities and to discover by actual experience its values and its limitations.

LIGHTING OF THE SCHOOLROOM—ABSTRACT

JOHN A. HOEVELER, MANAGER, ENGINEERING DEPARTMENT, PITTSBURGH REFLECTOR COMPANY, PITTSBURGH, PA.

Because it has been indisputably established that insufficient and improperly applied illumination is a prolific cause of industrial accidents, and a serious factor in causing defective vision, a number of states have enacted industrial lighting codes. Such codes set forth the minimum illumination conditions which illuminating engineers have learned will minimize accidents and conserve eye-sight. It is important that the eye-sight of the adult be conserved, and this is never disputed, why should we tolerate a condition in our schools which can have the protecting mantle of the state's laws begin to operate in their interest in this respect? Thus far only one state—Wisconsin—has seen the inconsistency of this policy and hence in 1920 enacted into law a school lighting code.

It is stated on good authority that many of our school buildings have lighting far below the standard prevailing in industrial and commercial establishments. This is a reproach on society, because it is found that the eyes of the young child are the formative state, and undue strain at such

a period must certainly leave its mark later. Moreover statistics indicate that a high percent of absences and failures are due to defective eyesight. Therefore, socially and economically speaking, there is little ground on which to base a refusal to consider this important subject. Each forward-looking state, each state which realizes that its future welfare depends upon a growing healthy, virile, and reasonably well-schooled population, must give heed to the lighting needs of its schools, public and private.

The school lighting code, an American standard, approved by the American Engineering Standards Committee, similarly to the well established industrial lighting code, defines the conditions to be observed in order to provide illumination which will enable the child in school to see without eye-strain. This code specifies the minimum illumination intensity to be provided in school buildings, for the various purposes. Moreover, it specifies the manner in which artificial lighting units must be equipped and installed in order to avoid glare, which may cause discomfort, annoyance, interference with vision, or eye fatigue. The code further specifies that the illumination on the work plane—the desk tops in the classroom, for instance—must be reasonably uniform and sets specific limits in this respect. It further prohibits an arrangement of artificial lighting units such that pupils in their normal positions will be bothered by sharply defined and annoying shadows.

As previously stated, the school lighting code is an American Engineering standard, and should be adopted as a minimum standard of school lighting throughout the country.

REGISTRAR'S OFFICE IN SCHOOLS FOR TRAINING TEACHERS—ABSTRACT

F. B. O'REAR, STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, SPRINGFIELD, MO.

Registrars in schools for training teachers are now performing nearly all types of administrative duties other than those of president.

The line of demarcation is not clearly drawn as to what really constitutes the work of the registrar's office, apparently in some cases because other administrative officers are lacking in the schools, but more often because the office seems to have "accumulated" and "just happened" as duties arose to be performed. The registrars themselves conscientiously respond to such demands and are more anxious to add items and round out their service than to shirk or eliminate even the more questionable assignments.

Actually these officers are performing duties relating to business affairs, social welfare, instructional activities, general school organization, and non-instructional academic and professional matters. The registrar, as a registrar, should primarily concern himself with the administration of those academic and professional activities which are non-instructional in their nature, leaving others to the president, dean, business manager, welfare directors, and comparable officers.

CRITERIA FOR THE CONSTRUCTION OF TEACHERS COLLEGE CURRICULA

E. S. EVENDEN, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, TEACHERS COLLEGE,
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK CITY

If teaching is to become a profession, what special abilities must teachers possess in order that they may be of service in the instruction of others? To find the answer to this question is the outstanding problem that now faces all institutions that prepare teachers, as well as all people who employ or supervise teachers. Before institutions which prepare teachers can know or determine *how* teachers are to be prepared, they must know *what* professional equipment the teacher is expected to have. This in turn makes it necessary to know who determines what the professional equipment of the teacher should be. In this country, with its publicly supported school systems, there can be little question but that the tax-paying, school-patronizing public decide what the professional equipment of the trained teacher should be. We are all too familiar with such expressions as "The people can have just as good or just as poor schools as they want" or "You can't give a community better schools than it is willing to pay for." On the whole, these statements are much truer than the casual hearer imagines. Educational leaders, however, have had and will have great influence in determining what the public will want and approve as the qualifications of the teachers of its children. In the past, these educators have used their influence to secure the approval and adoption of standards for teaching which have been largely derived from experience or philosophically developed. These methods have resulted in so many conflicting standards, each with its ardent supporters, that not only has the public been confused in making its judgments, but the institutions that train teachers have been able to find "authority" for almost every practice they desire to adopt.

The specific problems of most pressing importance today in the preparation of teachers in this country, are the following:

1. What should be the approved professional, cultural, and social equipment of teachers for the various positions in the public schools?
2. Should the present standard of two years of professional preparation above high school for elementary teachers be increased to three or four years?
3. What differences should exist in the preparation of teachers for the different school divisions—kindergarten, elementary, junior high school, and high school—and furthermore, what differences should be made for teachers doing different kinds of work in the same division?
4. What is the relative importance of "professionalized subjects" as compared with "academic subjects" in the preparation of a teacher? Does this vary for teachers in the different school divisions?
5. Should the teachers colleges prepare teachers for the high schools, and if so, how will their courses differ from those now offered in liberal arts colleges?

These problems are inseparably tied up with the development of normal schools and teachers colleges and, to almost an equal degree, with the future policies of many existing colleges. Until satisfactory solutions for

these problems are found, changes in the curricula for schools which prepare teachers will be based more upon hopes and desires than upon factual evidence. Some of the more important implications and interrelations of these five problems must be more clearly realized by those concerned with the preparation of teachers before even provisional solutions may be attempted. Certain of these implications must be so clearly defined and so generally understood that the public may be asked to express its approval of the standards for training teachers which are involved in each, before they can be put to convincing experimental tests.

One or more of the outstanding features of each of the five problems will be mentioned in order to assure their consideration.

1. What should be the approved professional, cultural, and social equipment of teachers for the various positions in the public schools?

It is little more than rhetorical exercise to plan curricula for institutions for the preparation of teachers unless these curricula can be designed to produce teachers whose characteristics are fairly well agreed upon as desirable and attainable. In the past, these characteristics have been arbitrarily selected from casual observations and have been as variable as the number and moods of the observers. A teacher who secured results generally conceded to be distinctly above the average has had all of his characteristics idealized, whereas some of them may be found rarely in good teachers and some may even be positively undesirable. Instead of cataloging items in such a biased composite picture, we need an actual listing of the things done by each kind of teacher and of the skills and knowledge needed in the performance of his tasks. Such studies are now under way and will be a necessary starting point in all curriculum revision for the institutions that prepare teachers for the public schools.

2. Should the present standard of two years of professional preparation above the high school be increased to three or four years for teachers in kindergartens and elementary schools?

A rapidly increasing majority of those who are preparing teachers answer this question affirmatively, while a much larger proportion of those who employ teachers answer negatively through the authoritative voice of the salary schedules they approve. As long as the prevailing answer is "No" it would seem that the American people acquiesce to, even if they do not definitely approve, some or all of the following resultant conditions.

a. The elementary schools will be staffed predominantly by young girls who expect or hope to teach but a few years.

b. Teachers in the elementary schools will have only a minimum amount of information, culture or professional training, because these elements will be limited by the salaries paid, and these in turn, will be fixed by competition with the young girls who take only the minimum of training because they expect to teach only a few years.

c. The content of instruction in the elementary schools will tend to be limited to "minimum essentials" and other more or less standardized information—the material with which inexperienced teachers can be equipped in a brief course.

d. The method of instruction in the elementary grades will be predominantly

formal in nature, largely confined to text-books, with much drill and testing upon a limited number of items, and with much more emphasis upon memory than upon thinking.

e. The children in the elementary schools will have little opportunity for the use of individual or group initiative, and but little encouragement to develop abilities disturbing to the "established régime."

In theory, it is easy to say that we should analyse the work of the various types of teachers and then prepare them for that work regardless of the time it takes. In practice there are the added complications (not insurmountable, but discouragingly difficult) of causing, in the public mind, an intelligent dissatisfaction with the results of insufficient preparation and of creating a financially supported desire to have more adequately trained teachers.

Before these results can be obtained, it will be necessary to demonstrate convincingly that a teacher in the elementary schools with four years of professional preparation is freer from the limitations just listed and does measurably better teaching than one with only two years of preparation. In the meantime, teachers will be certificated with every possible amount of training, from the secondary school courses to the graduate schools of teachers colleges and universities, and progress will be made by continuing to abandon the lower levels of training as rapidly as they can be proved to be wasteful and ineffective.

3. What differences should exist in the preparation of teachers for the different school divisions and for different kinds of work in the same division?

The present tendency in progressive cities to employ teachers with specialized training, and the development of differentiated curricula in most of the teachers colleges (one school offers as many as 34 differentiated curricula) would seem to indicate that differences in the preparation of teachers *should* be made for teachers expecting to enter different divisions of the schools. Up to the present time, the differences in training teachers which have been provided, have most frequently been in courses dealing with special methods, practice teaching, and some of the courses in education and psychology. In the other subject-matter fields, the distinction between the material needed by the elementary teacher and by the high school teacher is much less clearly made.

It seems obvious that the teaching technic, the content of instruction, and the supplementary material used by the primary teacher will be different from those used by the high school teacher of history or of science. Even in these respects, however, the differences are not so comprehensive as some have maintained. Both teachers must understand the fundamental laws of learning which operate with equal validity in the second grade or the eleventh. Both teachers must know the principles underlying life in a democratic society in order that they may assist in the solution of adjustment problems for individual members of their classes. Both teachers must have the necessary background of accurate information with which

to answer questions from pupils about such subjects as Armistice Day, The World Court, Decoration Day, as well as many national problems of current interest.

In addition to these and other "identical elements" in the professional and instructional material of the elementary and secondary teachers, there are all those elements which these two teachers would have in common as citizens and leaders in their communities, and as individuals with leisure time to be used profitably and enjoyable. It seems evident that the primary teacher should be able to read understandingly the same magazines, enjoy the same operas, or cast an intelligent vote on the same public issues as the high school teacher. Consequently there would appear to be much that these two teachers would need in common. Their training, during the elementary and secondary schools, may have been nearly identical. Many people believe that there is still not enough difference in the professional needs of elementary and high school teachers to justify the wholesale differentiation of courses which is advocated by some authorities. If differentiation of courses is carried to the point of marked differences in a majority of courses, there is no justification for not accompanying it with rigid certification laws which will prevent teachers from teaching in any field for which they are not specially trained.

In spite of the logical contentions that *some* of the courses for teachers should be sharply differentiated in order to prepare for specific positions, there seem to be equally logical contentions for having many elements common to the training of all teachers. The very practical problem of knowing what these differences should be, and what the common elements are, will not be solved by discussion. This problem will be solved only when it is subjected to more careful analysis and to convincing experimentation. Even then the solution will not be obtained without involving the closely allied question of "professionalized subject matter" as expressed in the fourth problem.

4. What is the relative importance of "professionalized subjects" as compared with "academic subjects" in the preparation of teachers? Does it vary for teachers in the different school divisions?

In many states this question has become an issue between the normal schools and teachers colleges on the one hand, and the liberal arts colleges on the other. A third group, the universities and state colleges with their colleges of education, is now involved in this question. Often times, when controversies have arisen over this question, they have been directly or indirectly concerned with the acceptance of credits for work done in one type of school by a school following another plan. This should not be an issue and certainly will not be, once the best method of preparing teachers is established.

Because the accepted standard for the training of high school teachers has been a college degree, and because the high school teachers have been paid higher salaries than elementary teachers, most of the graduates of the

colleges who have entered teaching have gone into high schools. For this reason, the question of the relative value of "professionalized" subject-matter and "academic" subject-matter, has usually been concerned with the preparation of high school teachers even though the issue is equally pertinent to the preparation of elementary teachers.

As is easily apparent, this question has frequently taken the form of the fifth problem.

5. Should teachers colleges prepare teachers for the high schools, and if so, how will their courses differ from those now offered in the liberal arts colleges?

Regardless of the discussions which this question has aroused, prevailing practice is saying in no uncertain manner that teachers colleges should prepare high school teachers, and that their preparation should have more of the "professional subjects" and less of the "academic" than is usually given in liberal arts colleges. It is impossible for the same student to obtain in a given period, say four years, all the elements which are usually given in a liberal arts college, and in addition, all the elements which are usually given in a teachers college. Until we can know which is the better, we must take one type or the other or make a compromise and select some elements from each.

Ardent exponents of the liberal arts type of training for high school teachers insist upon the paramount importance of subject matter *per se* and the relative unimportance of methods of instruction, educational psychology, and other courses in education and practice teaching. The two over-used expressions "You cannot teach a thing that you do not know" and "If you know a thing you can teach it" have furnished the advocates of the liberal arts college type of training high school teachers with all the defense and justification which they have needed. Unfortunately, they have secured little else in support of their claims.

The sponsors for the professional schools as the places for training high school teachers have been equally dependent upon such partial truisms as "Not every one who knows a thing can teach it to others" and "A teacher had better know a few things which he can teach than many which he will not use." High school teachers will continue to be trained in both of these types of schools until, as a result of carefully conducted experiments over a period of years, we know which elements are most valuable in a teacher's acquired equipment. Then we can determine the best method of providing him with these elements in any given period of time. Until these experiments can be made on a scale large enough to convince the most obdurate defenders of this or that plan, little progress will be made in the adequate preparation of teachers. For the same reason we shall gain but little in pinning our faith to any set of principles for constructing curricula for the training of "unknown quantities."

In the meantime, teachers must be prepared, and curricula for the schools preparing them must be made and put in operation. These cur-

ricula must be made as effective as is consistent with as widely accepted criteria as possible. These "best" curricula should then become the starting points for the comprehensive testing program which, it is hoped, will result in validated principles for future revisions of curricula for schools which professionally prepare teachers.

The following principles of curriculum making for teacher-training institutions are presented here in order that they may serve to bring certain issues clearly into view and in order that they may serve as bases for some of the needed experiments in this field. These statements represent a composite of present modes of practice, advanced practice and expert judgments.¹

The first, and possibly the most important principle of curriculum construction, is that the internal character of the curriculum and the constituent courses thereof must be determined by the nature and requirements of the future position to be filled by the student pursuing the curriculum.

The second principle of curriculum making for teachers is that the curricula must be differentiated and specialized.

The third principle of curriculum making is that no teacher can be said to be adequately trained, whose preparation is not well grounded in practically all of the better known fields of human knowledge—language, literature, social science, natural and physical science, mathematics, music, fine and industrial arts, and health.

The fourth principle of curriculum making is that the courses of study making up each curriculum must be continuous in thought organization and must be inherently sequential. Courses should extend not only forward but laterally to other subjects related in content.

The fifth principle of curriculum making is that relatively little "free election" should be allowed, once the student has selected the type of teaching for which preparation is to be made.

The sixth principle is that the constituent courses should be professional in character.

The seventh principle of curriculum making in teacher training institutions is that the curriculum must be extensive enough to give the young teacher the controls and skills necessary for the work he must do.

The eighth principle is that the curriculum must provide materials and activities for the purpose of strengthening and developing the personal and social equipment of the teacher.

The ninth principle of curriculum making is that all the courses should be integrated around the actual work of teaching.

¹ Most of these principles were proposed and discussed by W. C. Bagley in the *Survey of the Missouri Normal Schools* (Carnegie Report, Bulletin 14, 1920). The first draft in their present form was prepared by Thomas Alexander and appeared in the Report of the Survey Commission of the State Teachers Training Colleges of Louisiana. Since that time, they have been discussed and revised under the guidance of Professor Alexander and the writer by three groups of major students in the field of the professional preparation of teachers at Teachers College, Columbia University. In this way the composite judgment of about two hundred graduate students, practically all of whom had had experience in schools for the preparation of teachers, and the judgment of the other members of the staff in this major course were secured. This composite judgment is represented in the principles as here presented.

In planning curricula for normal schools and teachers colleges, or in planning any extensive experiments to test curricular elements in such schools, there are a number of tendencies and practical difficulties which must be kept in mind as factors affecting these curricula. These factors should be recognized as impermanent and not made subjects for extensive study except as they may directly or indirectly affect some of the more important and more pressing professional problems of curriculum construction.

Some of the most obvious and also the most troublesome of these tendencies and difficulties are listed in order that they may be more easily distinguished from the principles just presented.

1. Inadequate as the time may seem to be, the majority of teachers for the elementary schools will, for several decades, receive not more than two years of professional preservice training beyond the completion of a standard high school.

2. Provisions for inservice training of all kinds will have to be continued and arrangements perfected for enabling teachers to take advantage of such training.

3. Teachers colleges will be compelled to make provisions for an increasing number of "two year graduates" to return, after a few years' experience, to continue their work toward a degree.

4. Present tendencies toward the certification of teachers for specific fields of work will demand specialized courses for the preparation of teachers. This in turn will demand a greater degree of differentiation in professional subject-matter courses.

5. The growing conviction that teachers, as a group, need more general informational and cultural background will have at least two very definite effects upon the curricula of teachers colleges. It will certainly tend to lengthen the course, and it will put upon the numerous professional courses in education the responsibility for proving their practical value.

6. Rural districts for a good many years will continue to be satisfied with teachers below the standards of preparation accepted by the cities. These teachers, often graduates of high schools only, and sometimes with even less training, after a year or two of desultory experience, become competitive applicants for positions in the city school systems. Because of their smaller investments in preparation, their competition tends to lower salaries as well as standards of preparation. A few states are making commendable efforts to equalize the financial inequalities existing between the urban and the rural school districts. As these efforts are extended, the differences in standards for teachers between these districts will be very largely removed.

7. State normal schools and teachers colleges must be more consistently and more generously supported in order that better trained faculties may be secured and their service loads reduced.

8. When school organizations accept the principles involved in the "single salary schedule" method of paying teachers on the basis of preparation, experience and, eventually, merit, instead of the grades taught, the present retarding competition between the professionally prepared teacher and the unprepared will be rapidly eliminated.

As was previously stated, cognizance of these practical considerations must be taken by all who are in any way responsible for the building of curricula for schools which prepare teachers, even though some of them are but temporary conditions for which remedies have been proposed and in some instances successfully applied.

In spite of the handicaps just listed, and of others not mentioned, one of the most urgent needs now before the school-men of this country is

to secure more better-prepared teachers. This need must be met at once and met under existing conditions and by means of the most efficient and economical curricula which may now be devised.

The next step is to isolate the controversial elements and practices in these curricula, as well as others not controversial, for which there exists no known supporting evidence. When these disputed and unsupported elements are isolated, they should be made the subjects for thorough and conclusive investigation. The following suggestions for the conduct of these experimental verifications are made with the hope that they may arouse interest in the possibilities of such studies and be of suggestive value to any who may undertake them.

In the first place there must be a clear understanding by all concerned that a long-time experiment is being undertaken.

In the second place, results of any such experimentation should be made available to other institutions as soon as is consistent, with a complete account and an accurate evaluation. In this way, further experiments may profit by any known results from previous studies. In the publication of such studies, care should be taken to give credit to all who contributed in any way to them. This helps to increase the accuracy of reporting and also furnishes an effective incentive for participation in such undertakings. Any studies which involve the staff members of the schools will usually prove of great value for the promotion of professional growth, not only of the members who actually participate, but of the entire faculty.

Because nearly every curricular problem in schools for the preparation of teachers will directly or indirectly involve the entire school, most of the experiments suggested will necessitate participation by several schools in order to set up "controls." For this reason the third suggestion is that some of these experiments should be undertaken by states in which the several teachers colleges may cooperate with the state educational authorities in outlining an experimental study. Such studies should involve some or all of the schools and should extend over a period of several years. Several states already have organizations which would make such studies possible and profitable. For example, both Massachusetts and Pennsylvania have made distinct beginnings in differentiation of courses and in specialization between schools. It would be a simple matter for the existing organizations of normal schools in either state to set up one or more experiments which would extend over a period long enough to follow the graduates of the schools out into the field in order to make the *real measures* of the success of any plan under investigation.

Such an experiment was recommended by W. C. Bagley in his report on the survey of the normal schools of Missouri nearly ten years ago.¹

Inasmuch as certain normal schools are now engaged in the preparation of high school teachers, it would seem advisable to emphasize clearly in some of these normal schools the principle of differentiation referred to above—that is, definitely modifying all courses with reference to their bearing upon the problem of high school teaching. The products of these schools could then be compared with the products of the liberal arts colleges and of other normal schools in which the subject-

¹ *The Professional Preparation of Teachers for American Public Schools*, by William S. Learned, W. C. Bagley, and others. Carnegie Foundation, 1920, page 152.

matter courses are replicas of those offered in the liberal arts colleges. How far the present organization of subject-matter courses in the Missouri normal schools will serve the purposes of such a test is a question that will be considered in a later section of this report.

Had this suggestion been followed at that time, we would now have three or four groups of graduates of the three types of schools whose work as teachers in the field could be studied. If certain strong points or weaknesses were discovered as characteristics of the graduates of one or another of the schools, we would certainly have information which would be extremely valuable in planning future development of these schools.

Even if many of the states should undertake systematic experiments with various arrangements of the curricula of normal schools and teachers colleges, there are still left at least two very important and necessary elements in order to assure the success and value of these studies.

The first of these necessary elements is a central organization which can assist in planning the needed experiments, prevent unnecessary duplications, aid in measuring the results, and act as a central clearinghouse to distribute the established results to all interested schools. The organization which renders this service must be one that will be nationally recognized as having a vital and unselfish interest in the welfare of our American schools, and also as having professional prestige enough to command both the respect and the hearty cooperation of all schools for the professional preparation of teachers. The American Council of Education and the American Association of Teachers Colleges are very obviously two of our national organizations which could do this service.

The second of the essential elements at this time is the securing of a substantial sum of money to be used for the threefold purpose of: (1) interesting normal schools and teachers colleges in such extended experimentation; (2) providing the various services which should come from the central organization; and (3) making the wealth of valuable material which would result from the experiments available through a series of publications. Unless enough money can be secured to do this testing on practically a nation-wide basis, we will have to be content for many years to come with our present sporadic inconclusive attempts to show that this or that plan of curricular organization is best because this or that school is satisfied with its results. No one questions the important and strategic position which normal schools and teachers colleges have in our American systems of public education. The efficiency of these schools in preparing the country's teachers depends largely upon the curricula which are offered. These curricula have been prepared and are now being remodeled and reorganized on the basis of: "I think," "It is my opinion," "The present practice seems to be," "President A. B. C. of the X. Y. Z. Teachers College has just done such and so," and similar reasons. These will continue to be the guiding "principles" for constructing the curricula of teachers colleges until we can put some of our present practices to the test of carefully planned experiments which involve many schools and which are continued over a period of at least ten years.

EXTENSION WORK IN TEACHERS COLLEGES

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The reason for the interest in the question of extension courses in teachers colleges is obvious. The educational procedure centers in the contact of teacher with child. The teacher is the instrumentality by which the money invested in education becomes effective in building the intellectual and moral character of the childhood of the nation. That this fact is painfully overlooked is clear when we consider that fifty percent of our teachers have had no special preparation for their work. A comparatively small fraction of the whole have had preparation which may be called adequate for the responsibility which they assume. Because of the low standards required for entering the profession and because of economic situations a very large percent of the teachers of America go into the schools untrained for their jobs. The problem then is how to help these teachers to improve themselves while they are actually in service.

The two opportunities for academic and professional improvement while in service are summer schools and extension study. A study of summer schools was reported to this Council two years ago by the committee on teachers colleges, and today we are submitting through this committee a report on extension courses. An inquiry sent to 193 teacher training institutions listed as colleges or normal schools by the Bureau of Education yielded replies from 125. The reports received were from 42 states. The states that did not report were Wyoming, Delaware, Florida, Montana, Nevada, Utah. Of the 125 institutions reporting, 84 offered some form of extension work, and of the 84, 68 offered work for credit. Extension work for credit is of two types—extension classes, the nature of which we are all familiar with, and correspondence study. Twenty-five offered extension work only and 10 offered correspondence study only. In addition to the credit extension work, many institutions offer extension lectures and consultative service. For this work no credit is given.

Naturally, extension classes would be confined to a district fairly contiguous to the institution, for there is a limit to the distance teachers and faculty can travel while carrying on their work on the campus. The great advantage of correspondence work is that it can be pursued by anybody anywhere and at almost any time. Fifty-nine of the institutions reported submitted figures as to the number of resident students and the number of students doing extension work of the two varieties. In these 59 institutions there were in residence 51,999 students. There were enrolled in extension courses 23,928 students. In other words, there were 46.3 as many students enrolled in extension work as were in attendance on the campus. These figures are eloquent of the desire and purpose on the part of teachers to broaden their preparation for their work.

A special study was made of ten institutions in ten different states. These institutions were Greeley, Colo.; Macomb, Ill.; Terre Haute, Ind.; Cedar

Falls, Iowa; Emporia, Kans.; Natchitoches, La.; Ypsilanti, Mich.; Kearney, Nebr.; Albany, N. Y.; Talequah, Okla. These ten institutions were studied with a view to determining the method of administration of the departments in which extension work was conducted and by whom the extension work was done. Other items of interest were also included. In these ten institutions, nine have separate extension departments or divisions rank with the academic departments in honor and importance. These institutions offer a very large variety of extension courses and classes, but predominantly the work was given in the departments of education, English, history, geography, and mathematics. From the very nature of the case laboratory sciences cannot be effectively studied by correspondence, and only under exceptional situations in extension classes. Of the ten institutions reporting, in two the extension work is done by members of the resident faculty only. Six have regularly employed extension instructors and three utilize as occasion may demand other instructors, such as city superintendents and principals of high schools. In nine of the ten institutions the extension work is carried on by the regular faculty in addition to the regular teaching load. This practice has its pros and cons. Without doubt it is a fine thing for the college teacher to get out into the field and meet under different conditions teachers who are directly engaged in service. Speaking personally, my own experience is that teachers have felt a stimulation from such contact and have come back to the campus with a great deal more insight into educational problems and with greater enthusiasm for their work. On the other hand it will be readily conceded that there is danger of overworking the teachers and of dissipating their interests. While no data was gathered on this particular subject, it is my own personal view that teachers on the faculty should not carry extension classes more than two years in succession. Teachers have confessed to me that their private study had to be sacrificed in carrying on extension work. The question is how to balance the gains in contact with teachers in the field with the loss of private reading and study which must be sacrificed.

In the ten institutions under consideration, the compensation for teachers carrying on extension work ranged from 42.50 per credit hour to 55 per credit hour. For correspondence study the compensation ranged from 1.85 to 4.72 per credit hour. Regular compensation per credit hour for a teacher on the campus, based on an average salary of \$3000, is \$53.56.

Financially, students are greatly advantaged by taking extension work. The cost per credit hour of extension work is approximately 31.3 percent of the cost in residence. And if we take into consideration the salary a teacher might earn, and which he must give up in order to do resident work, the cost of a credit hour by extension is only 8 percent of the cost in residence. Some students might be tempted to do all of their work by extension or correspondence if the institutions permitted, but as a general rule only 25 percent of the work required for graduation in any curriculum may be done by extension. The number of hours credit which may be earned in a single year is generally twelve, or one fourth of a year's work.

Extension departments are agreed that the attitude of extension students toward the work is very good. You must recall that many of them are working with immature minds, and it is an intellectual stimulation to undertake the study of some collegiate subject in companionship with others of similar intellectual tastes and under the leadership of a competent teacher.

It is further reported that the attitude of the faculty toward extension work is fair. Naturally, some do not believe in it and others do not care to do it for the limited compensation. It is a relatively new thing with many faculties. That the general feeling toward it could be marked fair is reassuring. The attitude of superintendents and boards of education is generally very favorable. These officials like to be assured that their teachers are intellectually and professionally awake. The custom is growing for boards of education to pay teachers for summer work and for additional units of credit earned in reputable institutions through extension and correspondence.

To sum up the situation, it is about this:

In practically all of the states extension classes are offered which may be utilized by teachers within a reasonable radius of the institution. Extension work by correspondence may be had by any teacher anywhere in the United States, since many of the institutions admit to correspondence work students wherever located. Many of them are reaching a considerable number outside their own state. That teachers in service are responding to these educational opportunities is evidenced by the fact that there are practically one half as many teachers taking extension work with teachers colleges as there are students enrolled on the campus and to this number we should add those who are taking work through colleges and universities. While there is good cheer in these figures, it remains true that the great body of teachers have not awakened to their opportunities. Teachers colleges and other types of colleges should aggressively push extension work and superintendents and supervisory officers generally should stimulate all teachers under their direction to extend their preparation through this measure.

PRELIMINARY REPORT ON EXTENSION ACTIVITIES IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

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The subcommittee on extension activities in colleges and universities has only recently been fully organized. The lack of budgetary provisions has prevented any detailed inquiries or a meeting of the committee. It is proposed to hold one at the spring meeting of the National University Extension Association. No other educational development in the last two decades surpasses in magnitude that of educational extension. The problems of establishing sound traditions as to function, administration, methods, and standards is so complex and important that it seems very desirable that the Extension Association be asked to appoint a committee to cooperate with the

National Council on Education. In the preparation of this preliminary report which is concerned with formulating the major problems in need of study, I have had the advice and counsel of Messrs. Reber and Lighty of Wisconsin, Bittner of Indiana, and Mallory of Chicago, but the report has not been submitted to them for approval or revision.

Educational extension has become, in twenty years, a major university enterprise, serving two distinct functions: (1) to provide instruction through extension classes and correspondence study in credit and non-credit courses for those who cannot attend the university, and (2) to transmit to the people, in usable form, the accumulating results of experimentation and research in any field which may be useful in the conduct of life. In the exercise of its first and older function formal instruction in extra mural courses is given to upwards of 300,000 students by 75 or more non-commercial institutions in 39 states of the union. In the exercise of its second and newer function informal instruction through semi-popular lectures, institutes, and conferences, through motion pictures, lantern slides, and radio broadcasting, through outlines, bibliographies, pamphlets, and package libraries, and through bulletins and circulars, reaches many millions each year. Educational extension has been growing by leaps and bounds in the last decade, but even in those state universities where it has been most highly developed it has been an institution more or less apart from the university and independent instead of an integral part of it. It has likewise been developing in local communities more or less independent of established educational authorities—boards of education, superintendents, and principals—instead of being in close cooperation with them. When university extension, both in its formal and in its informal instructional work, was in the experimental stage, seeking new fields for possible service, testing out community interests and needs, and finding ways and means of ministering to them, a considerable measure of independence from existing organized educational efforts was probably very desirable. Now that it is a well recognized form of service of demonstrated worth, the proper integration of it with the university or college as a whole, on the one hand, and with the public educational system in local communities, on the other hand, is a problem of first rate importance. A recognition of this fact, is, I take it, what prompted the establishment of this committee.

State organization—The state university has been, in most states, the chief agency for general extension service. Now that state normal schools and teachers colleges, agricultural colleges, and an increasing number of institutions on private foundations are entering this field, the organization of state educational extension programs to avoid duplication, overlapping, and competition, and to secure cooperation of all extension agencies is imperative. The correlation of extension activities with the well established educational order and the clarifying of the relations between the institutional groups represented by the threefold division of this committee are problems more easily formulated than solved. Should all state supported extension work be centered in the state department of public instruction, as in Massa-

chusetts? Should it be directed for all state institutions by the state university, as in Florida and other states? Should the correlation be secured by an extension board or council, as in Colorado and Iowa? Should the state be subdivided into districts, and the extension activities of any institution limited to certain areas, as in Virginia? Or, should each institution be free to undertake any activity for which there is demand and in which it has the facilities to serve, with the resulting competition and confusion? From the point of view of the superintendent who wishes to supplement the formal educational opportunities offered in his city by drawing on an extension division, or who wishes to provide informal instructional programs for the citizens of his community, some type of centralization is necessary or desirable, instead of the loose competitive organization toward which we are drifting in many states. Cooperative relations with a great variety of institutions, agencies and organizations for business, charitable, general welfare, and educational purposes are a prominent characteristic of extension divisions. For these organizations to establish cooperative relations with many independent extension divisions will make for intolerable confusion and ineffectiveness. The superintendent who wishes to arrange a health program for his community or avail himself of the services of a bureau of public discussion and information will insist that these matters be handled through some central agency. It would be idle for this committee to speculate as to the type of state organization that will evolve out of the diverse forms that now prevail, or to make specific recommendations, even if it could agree upon them, but it can insist on a centralized cooperative organization with a definite delimitation of functions in state institutions.

Local administration—A second problem of importance is the avenue of communication from the extension division to the local community and the method of cooperation with local agencies. The city library, the vocational or continuation school, local centers or branch offices, district headquarters with district representatives, and local committees have all been suggested or used as the agencies through which extension divisions might reach the community. Curiously enough, the logical center or clearinghouse from the point of view of administration, the superintendent's office, has rarely been used or suggested. As the administrative head of the public educational interests of his city, he and the local board of education might be expected to have general supervision over all public educational work, both formal and informal for youth and adults. The maintenance in the superintendent's office of an extension secretary, or, in the larger systems, of an assistant superintendent who would be in touch with the school and community interests and needs which an extension division might serve, who would have ready at hand information concerning all phases of extension work available in the state, who could organize classes and arrange for instruction through extension divisions, who could plan, under the direction of the superintendent, for lecture series, health programs, or any other activity, would be in the interest of sound administration. In many cities and states superintendents now encourage attendance at extension classes as a means of improvement of teachers in service, and accept credits earned

in such classes for promotions and salary advancements. Here and there, in accordance with their needs, they come in contact with extension divisions, but a systematic incorporation of extension opportunities as a part of the public educational program is nowhere in evidence. Superintendents, almost to a man, deplore a dual administration and control in respect to the continuation or vocational school and insist on unit control. Why does not the same principle apply to extension work? Field agents or organizers, working with a large measure of independence in the school system and in the community at large, ought to be unnecessary in the larger well organized systems. Their function should be to submit to the superintendent, annually or semi-annually, the programs of formal or informal instruction which the extension division can offer, and to establish contacts with organizations which the public educational system can not well reach. Their main functions would be to find ways and means of ministering to communities where local initiative needs stimulation and where a good avenue of communication is not provided. A centralization of local administration would widen the sphere of influence of both an extension division and of the local school system and there seems to be no good and sufficient reason why it should not be done.

Extension classes—A third problem arises in connection with university or college extension classes. The demand for credit courses is increasing rapidly because of their value in meeting entrance or graduation requirements, promotions and salary advances, and various licenses and certificates. Budget limitations, distance and transportation difficulties, and lack of available instructors are the only checks to greater increases in many institutions. At the University of Wisconsin, for example, the number of extension classes in education is limited only by the willingness of instructors to engage in extension work, the time available from resident instruction, the necessary limitations of class size to make the class self supporting, and the distance from the campus. The demands grow more numerous and more insistent, each year, for the same courses as are given in residence and by the same instructors. To meet the situation very large increases in university faculties would be necessary. Even so, classes would necessarily be limited to the larger cities where a sufficient enrolment can be secured to be financially successful, and where standard for credit courses can be maintained. Extension classes cannot be provided for smaller cities, towns, and communities without an impossibly large expenditure of money. Moreover, university faculties are justifiably conservative in giving credit courses where library and laboratory facilities are necessarily inadequate and where the previous preparation of students is highly variable. University extension of this type suffers, therefore, from limitations, essentially financial, which prevent it from extending educational opportunities very widely. Most institutions have pursued and are pursuing a temporizing and opportunistic policy of meeting situations and demands for extension classes as they arise without a clear conception as to what courses can be successfully given off the campus and what cannot, and how far a university is justified in going in diverting its energies from research and the advancement of knowledge.

The college or university that recognizes its primary obligation to an ever-increasing resident student body and to the demands of scholarship and research, but also is conscious of its obligation to convey learning to the people is facing a difficult situation.

Correspondence courses—Correspondence study as the second method of extension teaching provides instruction for 100,000 students, exclusive of the large numbers in commercial institutions. An increasing number of students offer correspondence credit for admission to or for graduation from college. Institutions vary greatly in the acceptance of credits for graduation. In some institutions of standing, no correspondence credits are accepted at all, while others, of good standing, permit upwards of one half of the credits required for graduation to be taken in correspondence. The correspondence method would seem to be, by its nature, adapted to individual research for graduate credit, but few institutions accept correspondence credits for graduate work even while they are quite ready to accept it for elementary and advanced undergraduate requirements. Such a state of affairs indicates that we are not clear as to the relative values of correspondence, extra mural class, and resident instruction. It should be possible to secure convincing evidence of the adequacy or inadequacy of the preparation of students taking elementary courses by correspondence for advanced work and the comparative performances of students in comparable courses by the three methods. A limited amount of rather unsatisfactory evidence goes to show the adequacy of the correspondence method, but the general opinion still prevails that it is, at best, an unsatisfactory substitute for residence instruction. The result is that credit regulations vary so widely in different institutions. Testing technics have developed to the point where definite experimental evidence could be secured and it should be secured. Systematic study of the technic of instruction by correspondence, of the content of the courses, and the results achieved is a field almost untouched by scientific students of education. Correspondence study is so fundamental to the whole extension movement as a teaching agency that universities should give the matter fuller consideration, in all its aspects, than it has received heretofore. The content of courses, the technics employed, and the results achieved can be pretty definitely checked, which is not the case in extension classes, and the possibilities of development are almost unlimited.

Interrelations of extension agencies—A fifth problem concerns the delimitations of functions of the several agencies in adult education and the proper functions of the college or university in extension work. The general principle may be accepted that the primary responsibility of each institution is for work of the kind which it can give best, but as a guide in practice it does not help much. Should the university, in its extension activities, limit itself strictly to work which falls within the scope of the university proper and adhere closely to its traditional field? If it is the duty of a university to reinterpret knowledge for the ends of practice and to convey learning so reinterpreted to the people, the scope of university extension becomes very much wider, requires an organization which is distinct from that of the primary work of the university, and courses on a secondary or even elemen-

tary level. This would bring it into contact, and even conflict, with vocational schools where such exist. About non-credit courses for professional men, such as the post graduate medical extension courses on recent developments in medicine, bacteriology, sanitation, and health, there will be no question. About courses in making income tax returns, the slide rule and its uses, advertising and retail selling, or heating and lighting for janitors, there would be much discussion, not as to the value and need of the courses, but as to the responsibility of a university for them. It may be true, as Dean Reber holds, that "The greatest service of a university certainly cannot be realized if the field of so-called 'practical' instruction to practical men is not entered. The so-called 'practical' applications should not be outside the grasp of the modern university scholar and professor, and the world of business and industry certainly has great need for practical assistance based upon the most fundamental achievements of learned men of our universities." But it ought to be possible to find a border line somewhere. In actual practice university extension now covers a range of work from the most elementary practical courses to the most advanced. The determination of the legitimate field of extension work by colleges and universities is a subject ripe for study.

Informal or public welfare extension work—The sixth problem or set of problems center about the informal educational and public welfare services of extension divisions which vary widely in the different states. Certain types of service are well established, such as package libraries, discussion and debate service, bureaus of visual instruction, lyceum bureaus, bureaus of municipal information and general information service. Others, such as community center service, community music and drama, post graduate medical instruction, child welfare, engineering extension service, are less widespread but are found in a goodly number of universities. Still others are experiments in service peculiar to a single state. The forms of service and organization are so varied from state to state, and even from year to year, as to resist classification or standardization. In some states only a few lines have been developed; in others, many; in none has extension work been developed in all phases of the work of a university. Ultimately, we may expect that every department or division of a university will have its contributions to make, through an extension division, to the intellectual, esthetic and spiritual needs of those who are outside the walls of a university. This field is so large and varied that attempts at standardization or limitation would be unwise; the more experimentation and exploration the better.

The possibilities are limited only by three factors: financial support for university extension; cooperative linkage of the university with state voluntary and public agencies, and the development of local community integration with the university, especially through the schools and their officers. Community leaders need most of all some knowledge and vision of the great possibilities for community development which inhere in the peculiar nature of such an institution as a university which fosters the ideal and practice of public service.

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN SERVICE

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In the consideration of this subject, two facts seem to be very fundamental: First, institutions and parts of institutions set up for the training of teachers supply but a small fraction of the group of young people who enter, annually, the teaching profession in the United States. In a typical middle west state, approximately 4000 young people appear in the schoolroom each September for the first time. Of this number approximately 1200 have had as much as one year of preparation above high school, a part only of this year being devoted to the professional subjects. Second, the demands of present day education are such that however well the teacher is prepared when he enters the profession, he must continue his preparation if he is to remain fit. Indeed the adequacy of the preparation which these trained teachers have received is often questioned by superintendents of schools into whose school systems they go. One of them makes this statement in a recent number of the *Elementary School Journal*:

"The novice comes out of the normal school or the college far from a finished product."

The men who train this novice do not pronounce him a finished product. The graduate of the law school is not a finished product and surely the graduate of the medical school is not a finished product.

The most that is claimed for the product of a school designed to train teachers is that he is ready to begin. His knowledge of schoolroom procedure is based upon observation, or, if he has had the advantages of practice or cade teaching, upon a situation which only approximates the real. Left to himself he fails, hence he must not be left to himself. The whole expense system of school supervision in a modern city is justified in part by the importance of uniformity but in the main by the necessity of supplying subject-matter and giving intelligent direction to the work of a schoolroom which would fail without such supervision. The product of the teacher training institution has this at least to his credit—he is prepared to assimilate and intelligently use the instruction he receives from his supervisors and he grows from the bumps he gets in a situation which is as real as life itself. He does have something which the untrained novice does not have but his training must be continued.

The tragedy of the situation as a whole is that the product of the teacher-training school goes, in the main, into systems of schools which are adequately supplied with supervisors and where conditions are conducive to growth, while the untrained teacher goes into small systems of schools or into the one-teacher school where supervision is inadequate and

inferior and where growth on the part of the teacher must come out of the lives of the children in his room.

In this connection let me say as a kind of marginal note that the problem of equal educational opportunity in America vouchsafed by implication of the fathers, after more than a century remains unsolved—almost untouched.

In the absence of a federal system of education, leaving the whole task of educating the citizenship of the nation in the hands of the states, we may expect legal enactment of standards to train behind the standards set up and maintained by the local communities. As long as this condition prevails, it will be possible to draw public money for services in the public schools on attainments less than those set up as standards by the community. And here we find additional reasons for training teachers in service. The ideal to be attained is legal enactment, but sympathy, fear of increase in taxes resulting from higher salaries, and too often a lack of vision make impossible the enactment into law of high standards of attainment for teachers. And yet laws passed in certain states raising standards for teachers have not produced the above results. Teachers have met the requirements and the state is securing a good grade of teachers.

There is little at this time to indicate that America proposes at any early date to take measures which will prohibit the annual intake of a horde of untrained teachers at the bottom of the system. Since it is inevitable that these teachers will come into the schools there is but one thing to be done and that is to train them in service. Since most of these untrained teachers go into the village and rural schools the responsibility for training them falls, in the main, upon the county superintendent. Unfortunately this official is chosen in most of our states by popular ballot and from among the teachers of the county in which he is to serve. He is too often a man who is unfitted to undertake the training of those teachers—unfitted to set up a plan for training them if indeed he recognizes the importance of their further preparation. In most of the counties of the United States his effort in this field consists of a requirement that the adopted reading circle books be read. Even if he is qualified to undertake the task of supervision the number of teachers in his county is so great and their schools so widely scattered that he can accomplish little.

Extension courses conducted for credit by members of the faculties of teachers colleges and other institutions of college rank offer one means of improving these untrained teachers who are in service. Another method of improvement of this same group is through supervisors who are attached to the county superintendent's office and who under his direction do work comparable to the work done by supervisors in city systems. At this point appears again the need of adequately trained county superintendents. Probably the first approach to the solution of this problem is through a nation-wide movement sponsored by the National Education Association

or some other organization to remove the office of county superintendent from politics by vesting a county board of education with the power to go into the educational world and select an expert for this important piece of work.

But if all this were accomplished, and if only adequately trained teachers were permitted to enter the profession—and some day this dream will come true—the need for training teachers in service would still exist.

We live in a changing world. Certain groups of human activities can be reduced to standards and fixed rules prescribed for their administration. Not so in education. Change is its very life. The moment it becomes static it dies. That which was good last year must be re-examined to ascertain if it still be worthy. This means that every teacher in the land—university president, college teacher, superintendent, supervisor, classroom teacher—must train while in service if youth is to drink from a flowing stream and not from a stagnant pool. Content, method, objective, procedure must ever be under suspicion. Additions and eliminations must forever be the portion of the curriculum, for the spirit of American education neither slumbers nor sleeps.

In the years through which we have passed, the largest contribution to the training of teachers in service has been made by the superintendent of schools and his supervisors. But we have come upon a period when the teacher is demanding college credits for the effort he makes to better fit himself for the work of the social room. He realizes that the time is fast approaching when degrees and other evidences of attainment will be required of him. To meet this new demand the superintendent finds it necessary to establish connection with some institution of higher learning where credit can be had for the self-improvement work his teachers do. This places squarely upon these hitherto over-cloistered institutions of higher learning the obligation of getting off the campus and becoming in a real democratic sense a part of the life of the state.

Of the many types of work which an extension worker may conduct with a group of teachers none is more productive of interest and growth than curriculum building. Few teachers in the elementary school and until recently few in the secondary school have done any curriculum thinking. Under the leadership of an expert a course in curriculum building makes every subject in the curriculum new and purposeful.

One type of teacher training, or teacher development, for which the superintendent must always be responsible comes through the creation of a proper atmosphere about the teacher. The teacher is just as human as the child in his room. He does better work under encouragement. Criticism there must be, but always constructive and always friendly. Every year hundreds of teachers leave the American school forever who might have been saved to it if somebody had concerned himself with the problem of creating a proper atmosphere for their growth.

Ideally every teacher would be adequately trained before entering the

schoolroom. There is, however, something to be said for the training of teachers in service in that training is given in an actual situation, and hence related very closely to the practical work of the schoolroom. Not only so, but the teacher who takes his training within the system, other things being equal, will fit into the system better than if he had had his training outside. But on the other hand, it should be pointed out that an excess of uniformity is dangerous. Certain systems of schools are so highly organized that the teacher who receives any considerable part of his training within the system is liable to find that in gaining his training he has lost his initiative and sacrificed whatever originally he possessed. Classroom teachers—who after all are the only teachers—are everywhere complaining of an excess of supervision and soulless organization. To be sure, the men who set up these organizations and the supervisors who assist them have some arguments on their side. They maintain that the only way in which an untrained teacher can be used is to mechanize everything he does. For a certain type of teacher this statement holds, but there is another type of teacher—one who, if opportunity were offered, could produce results which are impossible so long as he is compelled to conform to the requirements of the system. I would not discredit all of the training in service given by the system. Many teachers have grown to full stature under the sympathetic guidance of a superintendent or a supervisor. But the superintendent and the supervisor do not teach boys and girls. Mechanics there must be, but the system of schools or the classroom which loses the human touch might better close its doors and in so doing write an emancipation proclamation for the children whom it was set up to serve. There are some things in life worse than a lack of schoolroom knowledge. Freedom which a wider connotation than we are accustomed to give it, is still sacred to the human heart. Possibly after all there is too much organization, too many officers and too few soldiers who actually fight in the trenches.

But to come back to our point of departure, training in services has until recent years, taken the form chiefly of the reading circle or teachers' meeting conducted by the superintendent of schools or by some member of his staff. Practically no summer work was offered and few teachers felt able to improve themselves through travel. Beginning with the present century, we have developed a wide range of educational opportunity for the teacher who is in service. These opportunities fall in the main under two heads; training inside the school system and training outside the system. Some of the forms of training within the system are:

- Visitation and conference
- Classroom supervision
- Required professional readings
- Demonstration lessons by subjects or grades
- Faculty or group discussions
- Teachers' meetings of various kinds
- Reading circle

- Afternoon and evening classes
- Intervisitation
- Direct observation
- Rating
- Lectures by experts
- Community contacts
- Participation in policy making
- Clubs and teachers associations
- Experiments and investigations
- Educational exhibits
- Measuring of teaching results and use of such results
- Encouragement of contribution to magazine and other periodicals
- Systematic interchange of good professional literature
- Use of detailed course of study
- Extra supervision of new teachers
- Selection of text and provision of teachers' manuals
- Scientific grouping of children
- Providing of high grade equipment
- Carefully planned use of reports
- Medical supervision for teachers
- Adjustment of teachers' load
- Providing of professional library
- Intercession of principal between teacher and parent
- Tactful publicity for good work
- Controlled experimentation:
 - 1. Directing study
 - 2. Project level of teaching

Outside Activities:

- Correspondence courses
- Extension courses
- Summer school
- Teachers' courses in college
- Travel
- District, state, and national meetings
- Institutes

Obviously these methods or devices for training teachers in service are not all of equal importance. Some of them cannot be undertaken in a small school system. Others are desirable only when conditions favorable to their use obtain in the local situation. Of all the methods I have listed for improving teachers in service, summer school attendance is probably the most important. The summer school offers the teacher an opportunity for training in residence without interrupting the practice of his profession.

Next to the summer school should be listed extension classes. On this form of training, I quote from W. C. Bagley, who is a member of this committee:

Personally I believe that the professional education of teachers in service should be closely related to the specific problems that the work of teaching involves, and that perhaps the most promising field is that represented by extension courses in which competent instructors from teachers colleges work with group of teachers in the solution of such specific problems. I should consequently be disposed to empha-

size (for example) courses in geography given by specialists in the field to groups of elementary teachers in this subject, and dealing largely with the problems that these teachers face in the actual work of the classroom; or courses in English similarly taking their "cue" from teaching problems; or courses in psychology and measurements conceived of and organized on the practical basis.

These two forms of training in service; namely the summer school and extension courses stand out above the other forms—important as some of them are—because they permit the teacher to accumulate college credits and ultimate academic recognition which will give him a new rating in the field of education and bring to whatever scholarship he possesses recognition in the form of remuneration which skill in class room technic alone could never bring.

In closing, again let me quote from Doctor Bagley:

In my judgment the "in-service" education of teachers should fulfill two very important functions: (1) it should promote continuous growth in the teaching-personnel; and (2) it should make for stability or relative permanence of service in the various fields of teaching, not by making the teacher, say, of the intermediate grades "contented" with his or her lot, but by revealing the limitless responsibilities that inhere in every phase of teaching.

The members of the committee who have worked with me in preparing this preliminary report, and to whom I am indebted for valuable suggestion are as follows:

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ADULT EDUCATION AS THE NEXT BATTLE IN OUR DEMOCRACY'S FIGHT FOR EXISTENCE—ABSTRACT

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The foundation of any democracy are of course its people; and its only defense is the training given to the hearts and brains and bodies of its people. This means that democracy can last on just one condition—that it get everybody in the democracy educated. This problem makes the one propounded by the Sphinx look like a sum in second-grade arithmetic. Probably if the founders of our American democracy had had any notion that the country they were founding depended for its very life on everybody's being educated, they would have withheld their hands in terror. But they did not, and we are in for it. If everybody can't learn to swim at least passably, we will all sink. That is the sort of country founded for us by our revered elders. We may like it or we may lump it. It remains the country we have

to live in. Our first attempt to meet this condition of universal education has been to create universal schooling for the young. We have now spent about a century in the effort to make literate every single person in a large country. Such an attempt (even the idea of such an attempt,) was, a hundred years ago, new in the history of the world. To say that any idea whatever is new in the history of the world sounds like a monstrous statement. But I don't see that this one isn't literally true.

Well, we have done it, or near enough to call it done. We have struggled over that long dusty stretch of our national journey, and perceive that we have not in the least arrived at the destination which was our aim—namely, an educated citizenry. The road makes one of its unexpected turns before us, and we find ourselves looking down another long stretch. We now see that “making the masses literate” does not at all mean “educating the people.” We have only succeeded in forcing upon the young of our race, quite universally, the tools by which modern education may be obtained. A whole new conception of what education is, what mass education must be, opens before us, daunting, discouraging, difficult . . . infinitely inspiring to courageous souls.

THE PLACE OF THE SCHOOL IN THE SOCIAL ORDER

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“Popular education and certain faiths about popular education are in the mores of our time. We regard illiteracy as an abomination. We ascribe to elementary book learning power to form character, make good citizens, keep family mores pure, elevate morals, establish individual character, civilize barbarians, and cure social vice and disease. We apply schooling to every social phenomenon which we do not like. The information given by schools and colleges, the attendant drill in manners, the ritual of the mores practiced in schools, and the mental dexterity produced by school exercises fit individuals to carry on the struggle for existence better. A literate man can produce wealth better than an illiterate man. Avenues are also opened by school work through which influences may be brought to bear on the reason and conscience which will mold character. Our faith in the power of book learning is excessive and unfounded. It is a superstition of the age.”¹ Thus wrote William Graham Sumner in his *Folkways* just twenty years ago. In the meantime the school, particularly at the higher levels, has expanded at an unprecedented rate. With the passing of the years, the superstition, if such it is, regarding the power of the school has apparently gained strength.

It is not the object of this paper to pass judgment on Sumner's estimate of the work of formal education. Probably most of us would agree with him that the popular faith in book learning is somewhat exaggerated. We

¹ Sumner, William Graham, *Folkways*, pp. 628-29.

shall therefore assume that the materials and methods of the school have been wisely ordered and are calculated effectively to achieve its purposes, whatever they may be. Our task here is to consider the place of the school in the social order, the functions which it is supposed to perform, and the limitations under which it operated. Only as the school is seen in relation to other social institutions, only as the forces which condition it are understood, can it hope to reach its highest level of achievement. Specialists are notoriously prone to overrate their own labors and the institutions through which they function. For a member of a professional fraternity even to question openly the validity of its more extreme claims on public favor is commonly regarded by colleagues as an act of treason or infidelity. Yet, if the procedures of the school are to be refined, fearless criticism of its claims from both within and without the profession must be welcomed.

While educational institutions in the form of initiation ceremonies and tribal-ritual must have existed in the most primitive times, the true school is of very recent origin. Although education as a social process has existed since the very beginning of the evolution of human culture, this process has been carried on for the most part without the aid of the school. The major educational burdens have been borne by other institutions. For all but a small fraction of a period of almost incalculable length, a period embracing hundreds of thousands of years, as each generation of men appropriated and added to the experience of preceding generations, the school was unknown. The true school cannot be more than three or four thousand years old; and during this brief period it has appeared but fitfully here and there and has seldom touched the lives of any important proportion of the members of society. Previous to the nineteenth century anything approaching universal attendance at school or at classes lay outside the field of human experience. The great masses of men who have dwelt on the earth in the past have not gone to school. Until the most recent times the school, where it has existed at all, has been a distinctly minor social institution.

Not only is the school a product of the later stages of social evolution; it is confined today to the more advanced or complex cultures. Beyond the Vistula lies a vast area reaching to the Pacific which perhaps includes the cradle of the human race, which has been the mother of numerous and great civilizations, which supports today more than one half of the population of the earth. As one enters this region one enters a region where the school either hardly exists or confines its ministrations to certain favored or special classes. In the great continent of Africa, in a large part of South America, in the islands of the Pacific, except where western civilization has penetrated, the school is practically unknown. The great masses of living men have not attended school. For the majority of mankind today the school is an institution of only secondary importance.

The experience of recent generations in the western world, however, suggests that the school is an institution which will bear increasing burdens in the future. The growth of the school in America and throughout the western world since the opening of the nineteenth century is one of the

striking characteristics of a revolutionary age. While certain of the older institutions, such as the home and the church, have been forced to surrender functions which they have discharged in the past, the school has been assuming additional responsibilities in each succeeding decade. In our own country during this period we have witnessed the development of great state systems of education supported by public taxation and comprising elementary, secondary, and higher institutions; we have witnessed the passing of compulsory education laws and the gradual universalizing of elementary education; we have witnessed the establishment of an elaborate system of institutions through which teachers are being trained; we have witnessed the growth of an endless variety of institutions designed to train for the vocations; we are witnessing an unprecedented and unheralded expansion of the secondary school which is giving birth to an altogether new conception of secondary education; we are witnessing the downward extension of formal education into the preschool period and the organization of nursery schools which are invading yet further the ancient dominion of the home; we are witnessing the upward extension of formal education and the launching of various movements for the extension of the facilities of formal education to adults; we are witnessing the development of an interest in the scientific study of education and the accumulation of a body of knowledge which may be expected to provide superior guidance in the solution of educational problems. While certain other institutions have been much more intimately associated with the human struggle in the past, the school is apparently an institution of the future. It has already assumed the status of a major social institution, and it is constantly reaching out for new responsibilities.

This expansion of the school makes a careful consideration of its functions peculiarly imperative. So long as the school played a minor role in society, what it did or what it was supposed to do was a matter of little consequence. But today this institution absorbs so much of the social energy and touches the lives of so many of the members of society that the nature of its special functions and limitations under which it seeks to achieve its purpose must be clearly discerned. What is the function of the school?

While the function of the school must change in detail as society changes, that function remains in principle much the same from age to age. It is the application of the principle which reflects the characteristics of a particular time and place. In general we may say that the function of the school is to facilitate the process of education. And the great underlying purpose of education is to induct the child into the life of society and to train him in the use of the instrumentalities of civilization. But the school does not, and probably never will, bear this burden alone. The process of education goes on wherever the individual adjusts himself to his environment. All forms of human association are educative and certain institutions besides the school, such as the home, industry, church, and the press, consciously discharge educational functions. The contribution therefore which the school makes towards the induction of the new members into the life of the group must be highly specialized. In fact the function of the school appears to be two-

fold: it is residual and normative. Each of these two aspects of its function requires elaboration.

In the first place, the function of the school is residual. The school should perform those tasks which other institutions cannot, do not, or will not perform. This principle can hardly be overemphasized. Yet in certain quarters today there seems to be a tendency to disregard it. Owing to the extraordinary growth of the school during recent generations the notion has gained currency that the school is no longer a specialized educational agency, that is, an agency for performing only a part of the educational task. A moment's reflection, however, is sufficient to disabuse the mind of any such notion. In spite of its recent expansion it remains but one among many educational agencies. Except where the nursery school has appeared, the first six years perhaps the most important six years of life, are spent under the guardianship of the home. Even after the child enters the public elementary school powerful outside forces continue to play upon him. If during the eight years of the conventional elementary education he attends school every day and hour the school is in session, he spends but one sixth of his waking time in the school. Before and after school hours, on Saturday and Sunday, and during the longer vacation periods his education proceeds under the influence of home, playground, community, church, theatre, farm, shop, and factory. During the years of secondary education the situation is much the same except that the great majority of children are altogether beyond the influence of the school. During the later years of adolescence and the years that follow the school plays a rapidly diminishing rôle in the lives of the members of each generation, and the other social institutions gradually take over the full burden of education. Not only is the school not the sole educational agency in modern society; it may not even be the most powerful single educational institution.

The residual character of the function of the school is revealed by a consideration of the central principle upon which the school is founded. It is dedicated to the guidance of the learning process. This distinguishes it from practically all other institutions. The home, the church, the theatre, the state, and industry are expected to render services and produce goods in unmediated response to human wants. They aim to satisfy directly the needs of men. The school, on the other hand, subordinates the principle of producing goods and services to that of equipping members of the younger generation for future production. As soon as an individual enters the school he enters an institution where the promotion of education is the concern of paramount importance. The laws of effective learning rather than the laws of effective production should govern the work of the school. The function of the school is not unlike the function of those industries which devote their energies to the production of producer's rather than consumer's goods. In a certain sense the school is parasitical on the generation that supports it. As a consequence the greatest care must be taken lest the school duplicate the work of other institutions. Since the school renders no other service, the education which it provides is a more expensive charge upon the com-

munity than is the education provided incidentally by those institutions which render additional services. The school came into existence because, as society grew more complex and as the social heritage expanded, certain types of learning appeared which were so important or so difficult that they required the services of an institution specially organized for the purpose of guiding and facilitating the learning process.

Until the school assumes the entire burden of education, until it is given sole charge of the individual from birth to maturity, the function of the school will remain residual. And so long as it remains residual the school cannot formulate its program without making the most careful study of the work of other institutions. Today the function of the school is so highly residual that such a study is peculiarly imperative. We who are charged with the responsibility of administering the institution must strive to avoid the fallacy of the specialist. Because of our long years of training and our subsequent intimate association with the school, we have come under its influence to a much larger degree than have the other members of our generation. As a consequence we are inclined to exaggerate the importance of the school and are rendered almost incapable of seeing it in proper perspective. A balanced view of the work of this institution can come only through a study of its relations to the rest of society. The task of education is a joint task; its successful and effective accomplishment requires the cooperation of many forces and agencies.

The second great function which the school performs is the normative function. Although this function might logically be included under the residual function, it is of sufficient importance to merit separate consideration. The school should do those things which other institutions cannot or will not do; but it should go further and, in accordance with some set of standards or criteria derived in one way or another, seek to correct the functioning of these other institutions. In terms of a given social philosophy or system of values there is much in any society that is not worthy of perpetuation, there are many products of social life which may be described as false, narrow, ugly, or vicious. In a certain sense the school is a censor, a critic, a judge of society and other educational agencies. This function of the school may be observed in its efforts to teach what is called correct speech, respect for property, or sound political doctrine. It is represented by those who speak of the school as a "mighty bulwark against those dangerous forces which are undermining the established institutions," or by those who regard the schools as a "powerful instrument through which society may promote and direct the course of progress." Although this function at any particular time may not fall under the direct scrutiny of educators, it apparently cannot be altogether escaped. Whether we desire it or not the school, or any other educational agency, will order its procedures in harmony with some set of norms, standards, or scale of values. And in so doing it will pass judgment on the activities of other institutions and seek to control both the direction and the extent of social change.

This analysis brings us to one of the most difficult, and at the same time

one of the most important, problems in the whole field of education. It also shows us that in a very real sense the school is a social institution, that it is an instrument through which social forces work. In the discharge of its normative function what scale of values should the school adopt? In the teaching of English speech this question can perhaps be answered with a minimum of difficulty and of controversy. But in the fields of economics, politics, morals, and religion the possible courses to be followed are so many and diverse that no positive answer can be given which to all parties will seem reasonable, wise, and proper. The course which is actually followed therefore will ordinarily be one which is not generally defensible but rather one which conforms to the interests or beliefs of some one or some combination of the parties. The school cannot move in all directions at once. In the last analysis what determines the direction in which the school does move at a particular time and place? The answer to this question is to be found in the forces that control the school.

The writer has recently completed a study of the social composition of the boards that control public education in the United States. This study includes district boards, county boards, state boards, city boards, and the boards of the state colleges and universities. Except the district and county boards on which the farming population is strongly represented these boards are composed for the most part of members of the favored economic classes. In 507 cities covered by the investigation all grades and varieties of manual labor contribute but eight percent of the board members; on forty state boards of education there are but four farmers and but one representative of the laboring classes; and on forty-five state college and university boards of control there is not a single member drawn from the ranks of manual labor. Those who are directly responsible for determining the policies of the public school are engaged in the proprietorial, financial, professional, managerial, and commercial occupations. In a word, except where the farming population retains power, the control of education rests in the hands of the capitalist and closely associated classes. It is interesting to observe that the clergy are almost without representation on boards of education. They are in fact outnumbered by the dentists. Thus in both England and the United States during the past century the control of education has passed from the great landholders and the clergy to the bankers, manufacturers, merchants, and lawyers.

This situation does not lack apologists. Students of school administration, often more concerned with the efficient organization and management of the school than with the wider social implications of the policy executed, have commonly looked with favor upon business men as members of school boards. Such men being familiar with the function of the executive, so the argument runs, are willing to delegate the tasks of administration to the administrator and readily recognize their true function to be that of formulating general policies. This reasoning is sound no doubt, but it fails to take into account the fundamental question of this character of the policies formulated. Nor is the situation altered by observing that mem-

bers of school boards derive their power ordinarily either directly or indirectly from the people, or by claiming that the members of one class may represent the interests of another. Individuals and classes must always look at life through their own experiences, and within the limits set by their understanding and power they will as a general rule guard and promote what they conceive to be their own interests. In so far as the school is thought to touch those interests their special bias may be expected to reveal itself in educational policy.

The primary object of this paper, however, is neither to attack nor to defend the existing arrangement, but rather to show what it means. The main fact to be observed is that the forces which control the school today are the dominant forces of our time. The forces which controlled the school three centuries ago were the dominant forces of that time. Those forces lost their control over the school because they were compelled to abdicate the seat of power in society in favor of a new set of forces. While any set of forces, because of the operation of the factor of social inertia, may continue to determine educational policy for a brief period following the actual accession to power of a new set of forces, education is quite generally under the control of the dominant forces of the age. At least we may say that except in the rarest instances the educational system is controlled by the dominant forces of the present or of some preceding period. Individual schools here and there and for brief moments may break away and serve strange gods, but as an institution the school will serve the gods of the age.

If this analysis is correct, it throws considerable light upon the direction which the school will take in exercising its nominative function. That function will ordinarily assume a conservative rather than a progressive aspect. The school will tend to conserve the existing social order rather than further the birth of another. The explanation is to be found in the fact that the school is controlled by the dominant, and, let us say, privileged forces of the time. These forces represent the past and the present rather than the future. The forces which stand for the future exist today only in embryo. They consequently do not appear significant, and they are significant only in potentiality. What they are cannot even be discerned with certainty by the most penetrating observer, because the potentiality of a movement is not to be measured by its present vitality nor by any mark of identification. This fact has made rough the way of the prophet. But whether the forces of the future can be recognized or not, other forces control the school. These other forces will normally use the school as a powerful instrument either to prevent social change or to realize their own limited purposes. And their purposes are limited because by definition they have reached a position of ascendancy. Their creative work is therefore already largely completed. The task which remains to them is that of filling the details and conserving the fruits of past struggles.

While the school is essentially a conservative institution, therefore, we should not fail to note that it may and probably will serve as an instru-

ment for bringing about social changes on a limited but important scale. In giving reality to the ideals of the time or of the dominant forces of the period the school may be an effective instrument. But its activities are clearly circumscribed by the scope of those ideals and by the factors which condition the present distribution of power in society. Consequently unless new methods of controlling the school are adopted or unless the school is given a freer hand in determining its policies, it can hardly be expected to become a great creative agent in society. It will be forced to operate within the limits of the existing system. Until capitalism or political democracy begins to crumble the school will probably be used as an instrument for supporting it. But let either give way to some other organization of society, and the school will be brought into the service of the new order.

The general situation is the less promising today because our age lacks any great faith which might be expected to unify and integrate social life and give meaning to the struggles of men. The flippant cynicism of the day is the product of the disillusioned mind, of the mind that has found itself forced to abandon the faiths it has been taught, of the mind that having been driven from one defense after another at last contemplates an unconditional spiritual surrender, of the mind that endeavors to hide its spiritual poverty and nakedness in an exaggerated assertion of the futility of all faiths, of the mind that seeks as a last refuge from despair the uncertain shelter of a faith of negation. If there is any philosophy which characterizes our age it is that of individual success and material prosperity. The graduates of our greatest universities become bond salesmen, real estate agents, and money changers.

The age in which we live is the product of the ages that precede us. And it is by examining these preceding ages that our own can be understood. The agencies to which society has delegated the task of providing an integrating social principle have failed conspicuously to discharge their function. The church, unable to cope with the realities of life after that life had been transformed by the revolutions in thought, industry, politics, and morals of the sixteenth, seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth centuries, gradually gave ground to various special interests and finally withdrew from the field of battle. It has failed to answer satisfactorily for the modern age the question which men must always ask: Why should men live, and towards the achievement of what ends should they direct their energies? Instead of wrestling with the world as it is, the church repeats old formulas, clings to ancient creeds, grudgingly gives ground to advancing thought, and dissipates its energies in repairing the dikes behind which it seeks shelter from the storms of the world. If the school is to take its proper place in the social order, those who shape its policies must within the limits set by the forces which control them seek the potentialities of modern life and fashion the school into an instrument for their achievement. We may find our activities severely circumscribed by the forces which we have considered earlier in this paper; but that possibility does not relieve us of the responsibility of making the school the most effective possible agent in social progress.

WHAT CAN EDUCATION DO TO INTEGRATE THE PROBLEMS OF LIFE—ABSTRACT

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John G. Saxe, in his six blind men of Hindoostan, illustrates the view of the ignorant man who sees things out of their relations. Each of these six blind men, touching only a part of the elephant with his hands, began to protest that the elephant was just like the part which he had come in contact with. The ignorant man, the fool, is always seeing things out of relations. He does not see the aching tooth in its relationship to the lack of care of his teeth. He does not see the pain of indigestion as related to the proper preparation and the proper eating of the food. He does not see the relationship of the dull headache to the stagnant air he breathes. He sees through a glass darkly. He knows only in the most fragmentary way.

The purpose of education is to show the network of integration which runs through the natural and social worlds. The elephant of life is not made up, as the six blind men would have us to believe, of isolated parts. The problems of science, the problems of the physical body, the problems of daily life, of vocation, of religious faith, are all capable of being brought together in a vital, functioning relationship. It is the business of education to create within the individual the power and the means of seeing the cosmic world, the biologic world, the social and ethical worlds, in their relations one to the other. It should be the object and result of education that every man and woman should be able to see the relations which exist between those problems which affect the physical body, which affect the social relations, which affect ethic and religious relations as a part of a great life philosophy.

THE NEED FOR RESEARCH IN EDUCATION

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There are two problems that every generation of people must face. The first is that of getting a working hold on the things that past generations have learned to know, do, and appreciate. The second is that of adding to the world's store of knowledge. The first of these tasks is that of education. The second is that of research. Research is of two kinds, first that which discovers new knowledge and second, that which applies this new knowledge. Or, to put it another way, pure research discovers new and isolated facts and principles, while practical research integrates these new and previously isolated facts and principles. Research then is the looking into the future, with a vision that creates

new theory and with a common sense that translates the new theory into practical action. Consequently, research is significant for fullness of life, for without new knowledge and new applications thereof life would become dull and monotonous, and more and more pointless.

The quality and quantity of research has varied with the periods of past time. The methods of research have likewise varied, though ordinarily falling under one of the three heads, philosophical, historical, and experimental. It is the latter, or so called scientific method of research, that has been so fruitful of results during recent centuries and particularly during the nineteenth century and the first quarter of the twentieth. Some one has said that the old dawn of the scientific method was the museum of Alexandria. The method was revived under Roger Bacon, but came, only fairly recently, to its present prestige and promise.

Thus far the contribution of scientific research has been largely in the field of the discovery of new knowledge and its applications, rather than in the field of the propagation of this information through formal education. Research has spent itself in the field of the discovery of valuable information rather than in developing economical and effective ways of bringing its discoveries into the possession of the whole of mankind. In other words, research has not concerned itself largely with the field of education. A continued piling up of new discoveries without a corresponding development of the means of propagating general enlightenment in regard to them is to a large degree futile. My plea, however, is not for less emphasis upon research for the discovery of new information and its applications, but for a further development of the method of research in the field of education; for a discovery, in other words, of better and more effective ways of selecting the best of all knowledge and of discovering better and more effective ways of giving the present generation full possession thereof. Much progress has been made in this latter field, especially during the last twenty-five years, yet, considering its importance, this field is still woefully neglected. Many more people of ability with constantly increasing funds and facilities at their command should be encouraged to enter this field of investigation and be amply supported in their endeavors therein.

Scientific experiment and research has made of the nineteenth century and the first quarter of the present century a period of unprecedented readjustments. Because of the results of scientific research, whole industries have gone down, some of them to arise in modified form on the old site and some of them to be gone forever. Old occupations have been abandoned and new ones have been created to take their places. Sometimes the workers in the old positions were able to adjust to the new positions in the altered field of activity. Sometimes they were not able to do so. Consequently despair and hope were intermingled in the changes. The family circle of former years, such a complete unit for both occupational and leisure pursuits, has in more recent years been broken up by new

discoveries which transferred the workers' activities from under the home-stead roof to the broad floor of the factory, with masses of humanity in close proximity and with perpetually humming machinery on every side. From the home fireside or the neighborhood yard or the community picnic ground, has been removed the site of recreational activities. The motion picture show, the dance floor, the speedway, the municipal park, have drawn people into crowds for play and leisure occupation. Besides all this, new conceptions of the organization of matter and of the relationships of various portions of the universe to each other have been injected into our thinking. Modifications of views as to the origin, significance, and destiny of life and matter have resulted. Different notions of what constitutes truth, beauty, morals, right conduct, have grown up. Myriads of new facts about the operation of the laws of nature and of mind have evolved. These new facts and conceptions have added materially to the bulk of human knowledge to be conquered by the present generation, and to the complication of individual, community, national, and even world relationships that have to be solved.

The task of education has, therefore, multiplied proportionately. These new facts about food, health, occupation, communication, transportation, have to be learned. These new relationships, individual and mass, must be conquered. With the old educational organizations and methods, these tasks could be accomplished only by a noticeable increase of time devoted to the task. This increase in time is costly to the individual, who has to spend it in learning, and it is costly to the community, that has to support the individual in school at the same time that it is deprived of the contribution that his services would otherwise give. It is uneconomical to permit the rising generation to grow up ignorant of this new knowledge of facts and relationship; and it is uneconomical to have the youth spending time unnecessarily in gaining a working command of each. It behooves our people, therefore, to apply to education, even more diligently than ever before, some of these scientific methods, whose application to other fields has been so fruitful of results, many of them most beneficial to mankind. That these new and valuable heritages may the more perfectly and swiftly come into the possession of the present day youth, improvement in our educational system must keep pace with the advance in general knowledge.

Up to the present time, money has been much more easily available for the discovery of new facts and principles than for their dissemination, except where dissemination was related to the material prosperity of those in possession of the knowledge. In the past, it has seemed more spectacular to make the discovery or even to pay for making the discovery of a method of controlling some dreaded disease or of conquering transportation in the air, than to contribute to the dissemination of such new knowledge among the people. Dissemination tends to be left to commercial interests and therefore it is made only where it promises financial returns

to the disseminators. In reality spectacular results are awaiting in the field of improved learning, which would quickly make a common possession out of the recently new. With the improvement of instruction, an otherwise relatively dormant but potentially powerful fact, could be immediately and extensively operative. When this truth is generally grasped, money should be most generously available, not only through taxation but also through individual and corporate gifts, not alone for the support of our present educational institutions and educational practices, through which the old and the new facts of importance are disseminated, but, most especially, for investigations into ways of improving our present educational practices. In the elementary and high schools of the United States we had enrolled in 1924 more than twenty-four million pupils. Nearly three quarters of a million more students were in the higher institutions of learning of our country. Gradually adult education is being extended and thus additions are rapidly being made to this vast multitude of learners. For the accommodation of this mass of people, hundreds of school buildings are being erected annually. An army of more than 700,000 teachers is employed for instruction and administrative purposes. For financing this educational program more than two billion dollars are spent annually. Education is, with us, a nation wide occupation, bulking large indeed in comparison with any other activity even considering those of greatest extent and importance. There is great need, therefore, for investigations that will throw new and better light upon the problem of the proper selection of material to teach to children and of the best projects through which to further their individual development and individual acquisition. There is need for further knowledge about the pupils to be taught than we now have. Formerly it was thought that all should be treated alike. This thought assumed that all were equal in ability and characteristics. It was evident to the eye that not all were of the same height, weight, physical strength, and endurance but it was not so evident that they differed in native intellectual capacity and moral traits and ideals. Such differences do exist, and they call for differences in treatment. Just what these differences are, and just what treatment best serves each type, we do not yet know in full. Much progress has been made in recent years in analyzing individual differences and in applying the instruction appropriate to these differences. But only a beginning has been made along this line. Much further research needs to be made and it takes laboratories, money, and workers to bring about such investigations.

The need for such research may be illustrated by the recent discoveries of the length of the eye span in reading, and the consequently rapid development in the speed of reading, due to studies as to the proper length of the line on the printed page and as to the development of proper habits of eye movement in reading. Again it has been discovered that many slow reading adults are slow because, even in their silent reading, they unconsciously move the muscles of the throat as they would do in reading aloud

and are thus held down in the silent reading to the same speed used in oral reading. It is readily seen that such a person is maimed as far as future efficiency is concerned, just as effectively as if he had lost an arm or a leg. He is only half a man in the field of reading. Every year are being made discoveries as significant as the above to education, but these discoveries are not coming rapidly enough to keep pace with the increasing demand for more information and for the development of an increasing number of habits and ideals as a control to conduct. Again I say there is great need for the development of an improved machinery for teaching the youth more in the same length of time than we have in the past; for, with the increased amount to be learned, a lifetime would otherwise have to be spent in formal education before competency in the control of facts and relationships could be effected. Research must discover for us the better way, and thus economize, not only for the individual under instruction, but also for the society at large that finances this instruction primarily in the hope that the instructed individual may thereby be better prepared to render service to the whole group.

But research is needed just as much in the field of the selection of subject-matter to be taught. The spelling books of a generation ago were encumbered with many words that the child would rarely if ever have an occasion to use in writing. Today the spelling books tend to be made up wholly of words which children and adults use in their daily written work. Not so fortunate have we been in selecting subject-matter in other subjects. By research we could do for these other subjects what has been done for spelling. Just as much progress has been made in the teaching of spelling words as in the selection of the proper words to teach, but still further progress is possible and necessary. It will take money and time and study however to unearth the proper avenues for such improvement. We need further studies to show us how to teach so that something more than a memorization of facts may result. The teaching should carry over into conduct. It is of little value to teach children in the physiology class the care of the teeth and the finger nails if the teaching results not in clean finger nails and clean teeth. It matters little that we teach maxims embodying fundamental statements as to proper conduct on the part of children if we still produce a generation that fails to embody these maxims in practice. There is need for the discovery, not only of the best things to teach the modern youth, but of the best time at which to teach it, the best methods to use to insure that the thing taught will stick in the memory, and, above all, that it will work itself out in every day conduct. It will take much research to push our frontier lines materially farther in these directions. But again I say there is not proper economy in a procedure that encourages the discovery of new information and develops new relationships, and does not, at the same time, provide for an adequate way in which to put the rising generation in effective possession of both.

There has been too much willingness in the past to determine upon the educational needs and methods purely on the basis of opinion rather than upon the basis of investigation. Consequently both the teaching profession and laymen have been led to make rather freely certain broad but unproved claims for education, trusting that these claims would prove to be just ones. People have such general faith in education that they have been willing to accept these unproved claims on faith. The time has come for testing out all claims made for education, in order to determine which ones are valid and which ones are not. Some money, time, and brains spent along this line would doubtless effect a marked economy. Mankind was for a long time without the knowledge that infections were at the basis of many of our dread diseases. We were likewise without the information that the injection of the right kind of enemy bacilli into the system would in many cases prevent the development of the disease and in other cases lighten the attack. Inevitably through our school system we are indoctrinating children. We are introducing conceptions of individual conduct, family conduct, community conduct; assuming, in the first place that this indoctrination is of the right kind and assuming in the second place that it brings about the result anticipated. Very little effective testing, however, has been done to determine the actual results.

In order, therefore, for education to do most effectively and economically what it should do, further research must be made leading to additional knowledge about the youth of the land who are to receive the instruction. Principles must be studied governing the processes of learning and concerning the immediate and ultimate effects of present day stimuli to which the youth of the land is exposed—such stimuli, for instance, as emulation, hope, fear, and kindred others. Investigations should be made to determine under what environment proper mental, moral, and physical growth is best assured. The science of biology holds out some promise of results along such lines of investigation, inasmuch as it has already revealed that, in plant and animal life, the medium, in which the growth takes place, modifies materially the character and form of that growth. Investigations should further be made concerning the qualifications, both personal and of a training nature, that the teachers of the youth of the land should have. Investigations should be made concerning the type of school buildings in which the children should be housed. Investigations should be made along the line of measuring the results of education, the immediate results and the ultimate results. Investigations should be made to determine both the favorable and unfavorable by-products that accompany education.

My plea is for a careful consideration of the need for research in education, and my hope is that individuals of ability will be stimulated to give of their time in furthering such research and that men and women,

financially able, may see their way clear to contribute generously for the support of further investigations in this field.

May I re-emphasize the fact, therefore, that much of our money, time, and effort spent in research in pure science and in the applications of science to the ordinary activities of life, is largely lost, unless a way is found to develop, through research procedure, a better method of determining how to pass this information on, not simply to the few for a limited time, but to the many for all time.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Washington Meeting

First Session, Tuesday afternoon, February 23, 1926—The meeting was called to order by the president at 2:15 P.M. at the Powhatan Hotel. The president then gave a short address in which he summed up the work and purpose of the National Council of Education, pointing out that there was opportunity for the Council to function in the field of integration of knowledge and practice, and asked for the opinion of members of the Council on the best method of procedure. A motion was made by Edward F. Buchner of Johns Hopkins University, that the president of the Council be authorized to appoint a coordinating committee to develop plans for the future work of the Council in line with the recommendations of the president in his address. This motion was seconded by H. H. Seerley, president, State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa. Charles McKenny, president, State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Michigan, suggested that the executive committee of the National Council constitute this coordinating committee. This suggestion was modified to provide that in addition to the executive committee other members might be placed on the coordinating committee by the president. This suggestion was made an amendment to Doctor Buchner's motion, which was then carried as amended. The president appointed W. C. Bagley, Columbia University, and W. B. Owen, Chicago, Illinois, to serve with the executive committee as a coordinating committee. The Council also voted to discontinue all standing committees with the understanding that any committee thus discontinued could be revived in whole or in part at the discretion of the president.

Thomas D. Wood, Teachers College, Columbia University, chairman of the Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education, stated that there was no formal report for his committee to make as the report made at the summer meeting was now in printed form. He announced that the Joint Committee on Health Problems expected to publish shortly reports of the various activities being carried on by the committee in cooperation with other organizations. He then introduced speakers with topics as follows:

FRESH AIR IN THE SCHOOL ROOMS—C. E. A. Winslow, Yale University, New Haven, Conn.

A NEW APPRECIATION OF DEAFNESS IN SCHOOL CHILDREN—Harold Fletcher, Bell Telephone Laboratories, New York City.

AN ADMINISTRATIVE APPRECIATION OF HEALTH IN THE SCHOOLS—Mary McSkimmon, President, National Education Association, Principal, Pierce School, Brookline, Mass.

DENTAL HYGIENE FOR CHILDREN IN THE SCHOOLS—Evelyn C. Schmidt, American Dental Association, Chicago, Ill.

LIGHTING THE SCHOOLROOM—John A. Hoeveler, National Committee for the Prevention of Blindness, New York City.

Charles McKenny, president, State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Michigan, and Chairman of the Committee on Teachers Colleges, stated that the scheduled report on "The Present Status of the Registrar in Teachers Colleges" by F. B. O'Rear, Southwestern State Teachers College, Springfield, Missouri, would not be given, but that E. S. Evenden, Teachers College, Columbia University, would report on "Some Criteria for the Construction of Teacher College Curricula" as scheduled.

This report was followed by discussion in which a number of questions were raised as to the different types of teachers colleges that should be required, and different courses that should be offered in the different colleges training elementary and high school teachers.

Second Session, Wednesday afternoon, February 24, 1926—The meeting was called to order by the president at 2:15 P.M. at the Powhatan Hotel.

Charles S. Meek, chairman of the committee, announced that E. L. Heusch, scheduled to report on "Extension Activities in Connection with Public Schools" could not be present and that no report would be made as there had been great difficulty in collecting material. He then introduced speakers with topics as follows:

EXTENSION ACTIVITIES IN NORMAL SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS COLLEGES—Charles McKenny, president, State Normal School, Ypsilanti, Michigan.

EXTENSION ACTIVITIES IN UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES—Vivian Allen Charles Henmon, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin.

Mary McSkimmon, president of the National Education Association, gave an address on the "Place of Biography in Schools" in which she described the interest shown by the children in the Pierce School, Brookline, Massachusetts, in the biographies of Americans of the present day who had climbed from obscurity to positions of great service and usefulness.

The preliminary report of the Committee on Training Teachers in Service was presented by the chairman, Thomas W. Butcher, president, Kansas State Teachers College, Emporia, Kansas.

Opportunity was given for discussion in which the question was raised as to how to stimulate the desire of teachers for improvement through extension education. It was suggested that the most practical way of getting teachers to take extension courses was (1) the right sort of supervision, and (2) advance in salaries to those who took such courses. Methods were discussed as to how teachers could take extension courses and at the same time avoid neglecting their classroom duties. Organizing extension classes for teachers convenient to their schools and limiting the number of credits secured each year, were some of the remedies offered as a solution to this problem.

Adjourned.

Philadelphia Meeting

First Session, Saturday evening, June 26, 1926—The meeting was called to order by the president at 8:15 P.M. in the auditorium of Drexel Institute. The president summed up briefly the new plan of work for the Council, stating that research or analytic methods of attacking educational problems would be continued in a limited way for the purpose of seeking new knowledge, but an additional work of the Council would be that of attempting to bring together facts now known, but known in isolation. Synthesis rather than analysis would be emphasized in the work for the next two years.

The president then introduced Dorothy Canfield Fisher, of Arlington, Vt., well known as a writer and lecturer, who gave a splendid address on "Adult Education as the Next Battle in Our Democracy's Fight for Existence." Mrs. Fisher traced the development of education from its beginning in this country to the present

tremendous problem of educating the adult. She said that the battle for the privilege of a university education for the youth had been fought and won, and now the battle must be fought again for the "education-hungry" older generation. Adults in this country pay out \$75,000,000 annually in a fumbling attempt to get an education, to gain something of culture through correspondence courses. The promoters of these schools garner huge returns from the mind-hunger of the American adult public. In these schools are enrolled more than four times as many students as are registered in the colleges and universities in the country. The money spent is as great a sum as the combined budgets of fourteen states. According to Mrs. Fisher, we may speak of our nation as a literate one, but we can by no means call it an educated nation. We have forced the tools of an education on our people but will not help them to use these.

Mrs. Fisher pointed out the great significance of the growth of women's clubs in the country. Three millions are now members of the General Federation of Women's Clubs, a growth that has come in answer to a desire for intellectual life. She also indicated the great possibilities and usefulness of the library in this movement for universal adult education.

Announcements of time and place of the meeting for the Council for Monday and Tuesday were made by the president, and attention of members called to revisions in the constitution to provide for the increase in membership created by the action of the National Education Association. Copies of the revised constitution were distributed to members of the Council for consideration prior to the vote on revision at the business meeting on Monday afternoon.

Adjourned.

Second Session, Monday afternoon, June 28, 1926—The meeting was called to order by the president at 2:00 P.M. in the auditorium of the Chamber of Commerce.

As chairman of the Committee on Vocational Education, the president presented the report of that committee, on part-time education, explaining the questionnaire from which returns had been compiled, and calling attention to such points in the report, as follows:

1. Age and grade at which part-time pupils leave full-time school
2. Reasons for leaving full-time school
3. General intelligence of part-time pupils
4. Occupational interests, activities, and weekly wages of part-time pupils
5. Attitude of parents, part-time school pupils, and employers toward part-time schools

Printed copies of the report were placed in the hands of those present. Some questions were raised concerning this study, especially relative to the cost of part-time instruction. The chairman of the committee advised that this question would be dealt with in the second division of the study, which would have to do with a study of objectives, organization, and progress of part-time schools for minors.

For the information of members of the National Council of Education, Jesse H. Newlon, Chairman of the Committee on Committees for the National Education Association, explained the origin and purpose of the Committee on Committees, which he interpreted as a temporary committee for the purpose of meeting a present emergency arising from much duplication of work in the National Education Association, its various departments, and the National Council of Education. Mr. Newlon stated that the guiding principles to avoid such duplication should be—

1. The initiation of no new work that is already being done by other sections.
2. The completion by the committees of their work within a limited length of time. The committees should not allow their work to extend over too many years.
3. The avoidance of too many committees working at the same time.
4. The definite reference by the Representative Assembly, of certain committees and responsibilities, to the National Council of Education.

5. The placing of more responsibility upon the Board of Directors of the National Education Association and providing for at least four meetings of this body during the year, even if expense of those in attendance must be defrayed.

6. Conservation of time and energy of the Representative Assembly by referring to it the findings, conclusions, and recommendations of the committees, set up in terse, definite terms and in printed form.

7. Omitting special treatment of such general fields as health and moral education and dealing with these problems in other studies of which they are an essential part.

Some questions were raised as to how far different sections would be able to initiate studies of their own, and whether the National Education Association or sections would have precedence in continuing work in lines where there was evident duplication. It was felt that plans could be developed through the cooperation of the Representative Assembly, Board of Directors, and National Council of Education that would be satisfactory to both sections and the National Education Association in such a situation.

For the enlightenment of members of the National Council of Education relative to finances of the National Education Association, Walter A. Siders, chairman of the National Education Association Budget Committee, presented certain items of the report of the Budget Committee, which he stated, had just gone to the printers and would not be ready for distribution for at least two days.

Mr. Siders stated that the fiscal year of the National Education Association closes May 31st and the new year opens June 1st. He described the three funds of the National Education Association, (1) Permanent. (2) Regular. (3) Revolving. He listed the budget items, stating that the budget was built on last year's cash receipts, and the expenses for the current year had not been permitted to extend beyond that amount. The Budget Committee had voted to put into a permanent fund \$2500 and one fourth of the increased receipts from membership dues.

According to this report, there are now 161,000 members of the National Education Association. The resources of the last year exceeded expenditures by \$45,627.65. In other words, an account of all the National Education Association owns and owes indicates a balance of \$45,627.65 on the credit side for 1926.

The president then called the attention of members to the revised constitution of the National Council of Education and read the italicized portions of the printed copy, which indicated changes, as follows:

ARTICLE I.—Membership

- a. The National Council of Education shall consist of *two groups of members*.
The first group shall consist of one hundred twenty members selected at large from the membership of the National Education Association.
- b. *The second group shall consist of members elected from the departments of the National Education Association, three from each department, who shall serve for a term of six years.*
- c. *The departments shall elect their quota of members biennially at their regular annual meetings.*

To the motions of T. E. Johnson of Michigan for the acceptance of each revision, respectively, the vote of the Council gave unanimous approval.

A meeting of the Committee on Membership was called at the close of the session for the purpose of nominating officers and members to supply vacancies in the National Council of Education.

Adjourned.

Third Session, Tuesday afternoon, June 29, 1926—The meeting was called to order by the president at 2:00 P.M. in the auditorium of the Chamber of Commerce. The president introduced speakers who presented topics, as follows:

- IS AMERICAN EDUCATION PERPETUATING A SOCIAL ORDER THAT SHOULD BE CHANGED?
—William C. Bagley, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.
- THE PLACE OF THE SCHOOL IN THE SOCIAL ORDER—George S. Counts, Department of Education, Yale University, New Haven, Conn.
- WHAT CAN EDUCATION DO TO INTEGRATE THE PROBLEMS OF LIFE?—Francis G. Blair, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Springfield, Ill.

The report of the Membership Committee, in which recommendations were made for the filling of vacancies both in offices and membership, was presented by the chairman, Carroll G. Pearse, and on motion of S. L. Smith, of Tennessee, was unanimously approved. The following are newly elected officers and members:

Secretary—Adelaide Steele Baylor. Term to expire 1929.

Member, Executive Committee—Arthur J. Matthews, President, State Normal School, Tempe, Ariz. Reelected with term to expire 1929.

Members, Committee on Membership:

John R. Kirk, State Teachers College, Kirksville, Mo., and William B. Owen, President, Chicago Normal College, Chicago, Ill., both reelected with terms to expire 1929.

Robert H. Wright, President, East Carolina Teachers College, Greenville, North Carolina, elected to fill unexpired term (ending 1927) of J. Stanley Brown, De Kalb, Ill., whose membership in the Council had lapsed through absence.

Members of the Council:

Terms to Expire 1932

Katherine D. Blake, 101 W. 85th St., New York City.

Edward Buchner, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.

Charles P. Cary, Madison, Wisconsin.

William M. Davidson, Superintendent City Schools, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Frank P. Graves, State Commissioner of Education, Albany, N. Y.

Olive M. Jones, Principal Public School, No. 120, New York City.

Homer H. Seerley, President, State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa.

Cora Wilson Stewart, Frankfort, Ky.

Caroline Woodruff, President, Vermont State Teachers College, St., Johnsbury, Vt.

Elected to succeed themselves—John A. H. Keith, President, State Normal School, Indiana, Pa., elected to succeed Harlan Updegraff, Mt. Vernon, Iowa, membership lapsed through absence.

Terms to Expire 1927

Annie Webb Blanton, University of Texas, Austin, Texas, elected to succeed herself, membership lapsed through absence.

Grace Abott, Chief U. S. Childrens Bureau, Washington, D. C., elected to succeed J. E. Burke, Boston, Mass., membership lapsed through absence.

Terms to Expire 1928

Rose Pesta, Principal, public school, Chicago, Ill., elected to succeed J. Stanley Brown, membership lapsed through absence.

Clarence H. Dempsey, State Commissioner of Education, Montpelier, Vt., elected to succeed James H. Van Sickle, Orlando, Fla., deceased.

Terms to Expire 1929

Thomas R. Cole, Seattle, Wash., elected to succeed Thomas W. Palmer, Montevallo, Ala., deceased.

Terms to Expire 1930

Sarah Louise Arnold, Lincoln, Mass., elected to succeed herself, membership having lapsed through absence.

John W. Abercrombie, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Montgomery, Ala., elected to succeed J. K. Dwyer, Anconda, Mont. Membership lapsed through absence.

Terms to Expire 1931

Randall J. Condon, Cincinnati, Ohio, elected to succeed John F. Simms, Stearn Point, Wis., deceased.

John K. Norton, Washington, D. C., elected to fill vacancy left by non-acceptance of Wm. McAndrew, Chicago, Ill., elected to membership at the last annual meeting of the Council.

Adjourned.

Note 1—The following were reelected or elected to membership in the National Council of Education, by the Board of Directors of the National Education Association:

a. Reelected with terms expiring in 1932:

Mary C. C. Bradford, State Superintendent of Public Schools, Denver, Colo.
Arthur Chamberlain, Editor, Sierra Educational News, San Francisco, Calif.
J. W. Crabtree, Secretary, National Education Association, Washington, D. C.
David B. Felmley, President, State Normal School, Normal, Ill.
Elizabeth Hall, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Minneapolis, Minn.
David B. Johnson, President, Winthrop College, Rock Hill, S. C.
John R. Kirk, State Teachers College, Kirksville, Mo.
Charles McKenny, President State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Mich.
Joseph Rosier, President, State Normal School, Fairmont, W. Va.
Henry Lester Smith, Dean of School of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.

b. Reelected with term expiring in 1931:

Mary D. Bradford (Mrs.), Wilmington, Delaware, membership lapsed through absence.

c. Elected with term expiring in 1930:

W. F. Webster, City Schools, Minneapolis, Minn., to succeed Helen C. Putnam, membership lapsed through absence.

The following were elected to membership under the Amended Constitution of the National Council of Education, by the Department of the National Education Association.

Department of School Health and Physical Education

1. Melville Stewart, State Supervisor of Physical Education, Charleston, W. Va., term to expire in 1932.

2. William Burdick, State Supervisor of Physical Education, No. 7 East Mulberry St., Baltimore, Md., with term to expire in 1930.

3. Ethel Perrin, Associate Director, Health Education Division, American Child Health Association, 370 Seventh Ave., New York City, with term to expire in 1928.

No reports of election of members have been made by other Departments.

Department of Adult Education

THE DEPARTMENT OF ADULT EDUCATION was established by vote of the Representative Assembly, July 8, 1921, as the Department of Immigrant Education. The first meeting was held in 1922 in Boston. See *Proceedings* 1922: 905. In 1924 the name of the Department was changed to the Department of Adult Education. See *Proceedings* 1924: 566.

The officers of the Department for the year 1926-27 are: *President*, Robert C. Deming, State Director of Americanization, State Board of Education, Hartford, Conn.; *Vice-President*, Wil Lou Gray, Supervisor of Adult Education, State Department of Education, Columbia, S. C.; *Secretary*, Willie Lawson, Deputy State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Little Rock, Arkansas; *Treasurer*, Ethel Richardson, Assistant State Superintendent in Charge of Immigrant Education, Los Angeles, Calif. This Department meets once each year in June. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier *Proceedings* as follows:

1921:460	1922:905-968	1923:669-703	1924:565-582	1925:337-353
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*THE NATIVE ILLITERATE—THE PROGRESS AND
PECULIAR PROBLEMS IN HIS INSTRUCTION—
ABRIDGED*

MISS WILLIE LAWSON, DEPUTY STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC
INSTRUCTION, LITTLE ROCK, ARK.

THE NATIVE illiterate—what manner of man is he that he should be so set apart from all other peoples, that he should be given a special place on a nation's program, that councils should be held in his name, and that soldiers of the printed page should launch a crusade for him?

There is a division in some state departments of education called civilian rehabilitation. Not long since, there was discovered and brought to the attention of the Arkansas division of civilian rehabilitation the case of a young man crippled from infantile paralysis. His body was distorted and he walked on his hands and feet as a baby would crawl. He was operated on and the operation was successful. Pictures of "before" and "after" were exhibited. "Marvelous reclamation," "Wonderful surgical victory," etc., came from every side. Janitors, stenographers, teachers, lawyers, doctors stopped to express their amazement. And there arose before me a picture—a man stalwart and straight, honest and upright, as clean and pure as a new-born babe. Pictures of him before and after had not been shown, but there was a story. Before, he was an older son with smaller brothers and sisters to look after. They went to school while he worked. When his case was called to our attention he was on the united charities list as a worthy recipient. His operation was an opportunity school and his surgeon was a conscientious school teacher. His, too, was successful, for he now is working for a big ice plant, has been promoted, and takes care of wife and babies. A marvelous cure, but the world passes it by without an exclamation.

Hugh Magill said, "There lie sleeping under the white crosses in France thousands of boys who gave their lives to defend a constitution which they could not read." They were the native illiterates and the sons of native illiterates in many, many instances. Their forefathers were the fighters who gave us the freedom of a new country. It was their ancestors who threw off the yoke of oppression and pushed into undiscovered territory that their children and children's children might live in unmolested freedom.

The native illiterate—alone in the midst of a crowd, and what a loneliness that is! So much like those around him that the casual observer thinks he belongs there, but so different that every moment is torture for fear of being discovered and pointed out.

A social outcast because social life in America ranges from the community sing in the country to the bridge club in the town and in neither of these can he feel at home. In many places the social life revolves around the school and he has nothing in common with schools.

A warped religious outlook because the Bible is to him a closed volume and his knowledge of its truths must depend upon the interpretation of his preacher—often more illiterate than the man himself.

He has no financial status, for his income is small and his family large. All money matters must be transacted by another who, he thinks in his ignorant suspicion, is ever trying to cheat him out of what little he has. His old shoe is his bank, because what the cashier puts on the piece of paper as being his doesn't look like dollars and cents to him, and how is he to know that he gets out what he puts in?

Living *with* us, yet not *of* us. Here a lawyer, there a college professor, and next door an illiterate is his fate. The foreigner lives with and socializes with his own people—each nationally segregated, so that while he may be harder to teach he is not so hard to find nor is he so unhappy where he is. To the majority of people he is just the native illiterate, but to those of us who know he is the man who, as he says, "ain't had no chance."

All that he does for the world is to populate it and all that the world has done for him is to grind him slowly but surely under the gigantic wheels of industry.

Where does the native illiterate live? In your mind, there is the invariable answer, "In the south," which is only partially correct. He is ours and we do not deny that a large portion of his family lives with us. But he is as innumerable as the stars and as migratory as the robins. Hither and yon upon the face of the earth he has wandered, leaving a part of his family wherever he went. Today he lives not in the south alone, but in every single state in the union.

I would like to say to you, "The work of teaching the native illiterate is going forward by leaps and bounds," but the facts show that it isn't.

All authentic addresses begin "a questionnaire was sent" and the rule was not broken with regard to the man "who hasn't had a chance." Questionnaires were sent to all of the states and the replies varied. Eighteen states were interested enough in adult education to return the questionnaire. Of this eighteen, eight were attempting no adult education program at all; four had an extensive (and expensive) program for the foreign-born; four others had a program for both foreign-born and native adults, and two had a program primarily for the native illiterate. In addition to these there was reported one county or local program for the native illiterate.

In the thirty states which failed to reply there are approximately 683,210 native illiterates; in the eight states reporting no adult program of *any* kind there are 20,944 native illiterates; in the four states reporting a program for both, there are 109,942 native illiterates; and in the two states reporting a program primarily for the native illiterates, there are 80,153 native illiterates.

With the southern states is the bulk of the responsibility, but if they responded 100 percent in each southern state and taught every single

native illiterate within their bounds to read and write, there would be more than 400,000 native illiterates in the western, northern, and eastern states who would not have a chance.

The rescue party in this case is not bound by sectional lines. The Mason and Dixon line separates us no longer. We are working in the *National Education Association* and not in a Regional Conference; the recently commandeered Illiteracy Crusade is a *National Illiteracy Crusade* and not a state nor local move.

Last year in the states doing adult work for both foreign born and native, there were reported 48,586 adults enrolled in school; in the states doing work primarily for natives (but, of course, including both) there were 14,185 adults enrolled in school.

In the several separate states there is progress being made. Delaware, South Carolina, Alabama, Arkansas, Maine, and Ohio report much work done; Delaware, South Carolina, and Alabama report annual appropriations from \$12,000 to \$50,000 and definite, organized, permanent state programs. Arkansas reports a small state appropriation, continued volunteer work on the part of the day school teachers and two counties and one city now financing their own programs and working under the supervision of the state director. North Carolina reports Buncombe county work for native illiterates as its only attempt. Buncombe county itself reports a \$10,000 county appropriation, 19 schools taught 956 adults enrolled, 4 clubs cooperating financially, a working course of study and 4 trained field workers. Such a county program will sell the work to the state soon—to any state for that matter.

Our problem as the Adult Education Department of the National Education Association is how to reach those native illiterates who live within the bounds of those states not offering them anything in the way of educational opportunity. When this has been done, then progress will have been made.

Why hasn't the native illiterate been taught? Why are there so many in his huge family? In other words, what are the peculiar problems in the instruction of the native illiterate?

One of the big problems with the native illiterate is that they don't segregate. In one county there may be twenty-five and in an adjoining county there may be fifteen hundred. In many towns there may be found only one or two native illiterates. That is the reason that many states attack the foreign problem and leave the native illiterate problem untouched. They are there admittedly, but hidden in among the other natives so successfully that to find and teach them is a seeming impossibility. Even in the states where there are the largest numbers of native illiterates this same peculiar problem is evident in various communities. We find it most easily solved through contact with the children in the day school, though in several instances the children themselves did not know of their parents' lack of education. Legislation requiring the names and addresses of illiterates to be taken with the school census would help this situation, too.

The sensitiveness of the native illiterate is far more of a hindrance than one would imagine. Alike in color, alike in dress, alike in language, alike in so many customs and habits—he rather resents the fact that because of this one great difference, he stands apart from the crowd. The greatest argument against this is that he should take this belated opportunity in order that his children may no longer be different, but may be unhampered and free in their association with others. Probably the best remedy for this “difference” is a course of study for the native illiterate which definitely does three things:

1. Establishes close contact between him and all city, county, state, and federal agencies.
2. Gives the adult in theory and practice high standards in health, thrift, recreation, and citizenship.
3. Grades his work so that he may pass from grade to grade and see definite pieces of work done, specific subjects mastered.

Another problem is that the census gives such erroneous ideas to his real rating. Many times a suspicious, untaught person approached by a brusque census taker, will state that he *can't* sign his name because he is afraid to place it on the dotted line (due to past experience with shrewd, unscrupulous book agents and enlarged-picture salesmen). He is probably a third-grade pupil. Again there is one who awkwardly signs his name, but could not write a single other word nor add two and two. He is rated as out of the illiterate class. In most places the census is used as a basis for locating illiterates. There are probably three or four times as many who really are eligible to adult school work. Legislation for proper illiteracy census would remedy that problem—has already done so in many localities.

Too, the native illiterate is more or less indifferent. The foreigner comes to this country in search of some intangible something which he believes to be here. He soon learns that it will be more easily gotten if he has some knowledge of the English language, so he either goes in search of a chance to go to school or receives it gladly when the chance comes to him. Not so with the native. He is in search of nothing but a mere living. Having lived so all his life he sees no reason for a change now. Before he can be given a chance he must be shown why he needs it and what specific benefits it will bring him when he gets it. The only way which has been discovered so far to combat that problem is the right approach of the person who carries him the message.

THE ADULT EDUCATIONAL INTERESTS AND ACTIVITIES OF OUR FOREIGN LANGUAGE ORGANIZATIONS— ABRIDGED

READ LEWIS, DIRECTOR, FOREIGN LANGUAGE INFORMATION, NEW YORK CITY

Side by side with our schools there exists a vast network of organizations which touch every phase of the immigrant's life. Foreign language benefit societies provide for sickness, death, and burial. In his own church

the immigrant may participate in the traditional ritual and listen to the old songs. Singing, musical, and dramatic societies express his artistic interests. Clubs and lodges reflect his social needs. Educational and political organizations respond to his desire for education and his interest in the native country. This variety of organizations, as natural as they are inevitable, the immigrant has brought with him or has created here to meet the fundamental human needs which are common to us all.

The importance of these foreign language organizations in the life of the immigrant, and their potentialities as a part of our social machinery are suggested by the briefest glance. A recent survey of sixteen immigrant groups enumerated 300 national societies and more than 20,000 local and branch organizations. If all religious associations—the oldest immigrant organizations in America—had been included the numbers would have been even larger since the last federal census lists 14,573 churches conducting services in foreign languages. The two American orders of the Sons of Italy have over 1600 lodges. The Polish National Alliance alone has a membership of over 170,000 adults. The fifteen Yugoslav benevolent organizations have some 1800 local branches. Even in so comparatively small a group as the Ukrainians, four fraternal organizations have some 700 local societies.

Among so many different nationalities and organizations, generalization is not easy. Yet it is safe to say that instead of being a bar to assimilation, these foreign language organizations are one of the immigrant's surest stepping stones to American life. This is evidenced by two outstanding facts. First, the organizations which prosper and endure are those which are primarily concerned with the economic, social, and educational aspects of life in America, whereas organizations which direct the immigrant's energies and sympathies to problems in his native country have a comparatively temporary existence. Second, there is on the part of these organizations a desire, expressed in terms of concrete effort, to promote the general education of their members and to encourage their citizenship and participation in American life. These facts are sometimes obscured by our own impatience. Naturally among immigrants who have arrived only recently, we must expect a greater interest in the homeland. Yet the logic of events is carrying such groups to the position of the Czech Sokols whose membership is today limited to American citizens or declarants or of the German Turnvereins where English is already one of the official languages and is gradually supplanting German. In the Polish group, the more important benefit organizations all have special departments of education. The Polish National Alliance maintains its own school of industrial arts at Cambridge Springs, Pennsylvania. It is furnishing some fifty libraries in Polish communities with books. It conducts each year through its different locals a large number of citizenship classes. It has just published a manual for the use of such classes. The Polish Roman Catholic Union carries on similar activities. Each of its 100,000 members is charged one cent over his monthly dues for educational work. Stipends are paid to

poor students. Many of the local societies hold lecture courses or citizenship classes. In practically all the large Polish centers there are also independent educational enterprises. The Polish Circle in Cleveland, this last year, had a series of 36 Sunday lectures, on history, philosophy, literature, Polish affairs, medicine and hygiene. This fall a course on the history of the United States is planned.

Among the Swedes, religious organizations are the most important type and have exercised a dominating influence in educational matters. Thus the Swedish Lutheran Church in the United States owns and supports nine well-established colleges, chiefly in the middle west. In addition to their regular academic work, most of them have extension departments which offer facilities for the Swedish immigrant.

Among the Russians, the so-called people's universities are far less securely organized. Most of the first efforts were started by groups of laborers wishing to utilize their leisure time for education and recreation, but of late the large number of refugees have taken a prominent part. In New York the Mutual Aid Society "Nauka," organized in 1905, has conducted classes for teaching English and a comparatively large number of lectures for Russian immigrants. During two winter terms it gives general elementary courses and several short technical and vocational courses. Its Sunday lectures on popular science are always well attended. The New York Society "Prosveshchenie" (or Enlightenment) has conducted seven English classes, a 42-hour course in paperhanging and painting with a fee of \$35 and a 100 hour course in plastering for which a \$75 tuition fee was charged. Some 200 were registered in these vocational courses. Many of them were able to pass the required examination and joined the labor union. Twice a week general lectures are given. Of some 70 during the year about a dozen under the title of "Knowledge of America" dealt with our laws, industries, and economics.

Among the Jugoslavs the characteristic singing societies—there are 65 of them in the United States—have done much to encourage cultural activity and stimulate general educational interests. The Danes have established in this country some six or seven of their folk high schools. These are boarding schools for adults, chiefly from rural districts, and utilize the slack season—the winter for men and early summer for women. Instruction is cultural rather than vocational.

The Jewish immigrant has not only made use of American libraries and evening classes but has established his own educational institutions. This is especially true of Jewish labor groups. The workmen's circle, organized in 1892 by a small group of Jewish cloak and cap makers in New York, now number 700 branches and 85,000 members. A certain part of the quarterly dues are devoted to educational work. The circle has a number of well known lecturers who devote their entire time to lecturing in the different branches throughout the country. American history and civics, the history of civilization, Jewish history, political economy, and the natural sciences are the subjects usually covered. Systematic study

courses have been organized in twenty-eight cities. Artistic activities also find a place, there being at present six choruses, five dramatic groups, and five orchestras. Women's clubs and mothers' leagues have also been organized, and devote time to questions of child training. The circle has printed a number of educational books and pamphlets and also established a teacher's seminary.

With the Ukrainians the mass lecture is the most popular educational enterprise. Most of the hundreds of thousands of Ukrainian workingmen scattered throughout our cities and industrial centers, landed in this country with little if any schooling—usually no more than to enable them to read in their own language—and with no education of any kind to help them to get over the strangeness of being in America. After a day's labor in the shop or mine, intensive or concentrated study cannot be looked for.

In spite of this, however, the demand for Ukrainian lectures far exceeds the supply. The range of subjects is wide. It may be history, or economics, or science, or literature, or health, or the old country or the new. It is easy for us to forget that the immigrant rarely thinks of himself as an "immigrant"—any more than an American abroad thinks of himself as a foreigner—and that his interests are as general as our own. The immigrant, even if uneducated, has necessarily accumulated from experience and hearsay a multitude of facts and impressions and ideas. He wants someone to relate this mass of disarranged facts and contradictory opinions. He wants history or economics or human civilization. Thus Ukrainian lectures have found their most popular subjects: the history of civilization, problems of political economy, the theory of evolution, current events such as the great war and contemporary labor movements, the history of science, and the theory and practice of cooperation. One record of over 200 lectures showed an average attendance of 80 to 200 Ukrainian workers. For the longer courses of twenty lectures a fee of \$10 or \$15 was charged. On a Sunday afternoon in Newark 300 men remained a full five hours listening to a talk and subsequent discussion on forms of government. A series of four lectures on the theory of evolution attracted an audience of between one and two hundred who crowded the workers' club room for two hours on four consecutive evenings, in spite of midsummer heat.

The immigrant's American experience is reflected in an increased interest in economics and health. It is inevitable that his new industrial experience should prompt an interest in labor problems and the economic system under which he lives. Again our many hospitals, the great numbers of doctors and druggists, our profuse medical advertising and unaccustomed industrial conditions stimulate an interest in personal and industrial hygiene and the problems of anatomy and physiology. American government and politics on the other hand seem remote and quite outside the experience of the more recent immigrant. The native country, however, is always a popular theme of study and discussion. This is not to be explained by racial attachment alone or anxiety for the kinsfolk at

home. As a foreigner and as a laborer, the immigrant has to sustain a double burden of inferiority. He looks for compensation and he finds it in his own race, its history, culture, and political aspirations. If he is a nobody in America, he may become a somebody within the group of his fellow-countrymen.

Typical of the older immigration are the Czechs and Germans. Their most characteristic educational activities are naturally different from the mass lecture so popular with the Ukrainians. The Sokols, the best known of the Czech organizations, are far more than societies for gymnastic training. Many of them serve as community centers for their groups with gymnasiums, reading rooms, libraries, and assembly halls for theatrical entertainments and lectures. Singing societies and debating clubs are frequently a feature of their work. Of 108 Sokol associations in the American Sokol Union, one of the four national associations, twenty-seven own their own gymnasiums and halls and all but seven have more or less extensive libraries. The educational department of the central committee in Chicago plans programs, readings, and lectures, for the entire Union each year and sends out its field secretary of education to those districts needing assistance. As the Sokols limit their membership to American citizens, or declarants, they make provision for citizenship training and encourage the participation of their members in American life.

Similarly the Turners, the best known German immigrant organization, though founded for physical training, have a very much broader program. While the 169 Turner societies have recently increased their membership due to recent German immigration, one judges from the latest message of the national president that their problem is not so much to learn English as to preserve a knowledge of German. "Every Turnverein," he writes, "should have a German school or reading circle to keep the knowledge of German alive," and again "those who wish to become better acquainted with the Turner principles of liberty and progress should (if they understand German) read the *Turnzeitung* every week. Those who do not understand German, should take some other liberal and progressive publication." And he then recommends: *The Nation*, *The New Republic*, *The Atlantic Monthly*, *The Living Age*, *The American Mercury*, *The Century Magazine*, *The Forum*, *The Progressive*.

Fragmentary as this survey is, it would be entirely inadequate without some reference to the foreign language press. While we may ordinarily think of the press as something distinct from foreign language organizations, yet it is true that many such organizations issue their own newspapers or periodicals and that these publications are in a real sense one of the most important of their educational activities. The foreign language newspaper is the only printed matter which is readily accepted and well understood by the immigrant mass. A large majority of them, wearied by

the day's work, do not have the necessary mental energy for any systematic educational work. Even if an immigrant worker learns to speak English, he is not likely to read with ease an English newspaper editorial or a popular magazine article.

The foreign language newspaper, on the other hand, is written in his own language, and moreover this language is simple and common. The newspaper may not aim to educate. But while bringing news about the homeland, America and the world, and while discussing European affairs, American politics, nationalism, socialism, religion, and what not, it offers its readers a multitude of things: new names, new facts, new ideas, the first rudiments of geography, history, politics, and economics. The immigrant who was a peasant or villager in southern or eastern Europe had probably not acquired the habit of newspaper reading. A newspaper was too expensive to subscribe to and was written only for the educated. Here it is written for him, and it gives him the first inklings of the world's knowledge. The average publication in such language groups is not only a newspaper but also a journal of opinion, a magazine of popular science and a political forum. Its political discussions may be vague or prejudiced, its fiction cheap, and its presentation of scientific facts careless and inadequate, but to an uneducated mind anything that is new is news, and any news is apt to increase the knowledge of the reader and to stimulate a desire for further knowledge.

There is no single place where one can turn for a catalog of foreign language organizations or for a description of their educational activities. Such knowledge must for the most part be a matter of first hand investigation in each of our communities. How important this information and the resulting contacts and cooperation might be, is evident as we come to realize that these foreign language organizations represent the natural associations of the immigrant, that they, and the foreign language press, offer the most direct and hence the most effective approach to him, and that because they are his own creation, they are nearest to his psychology. How can our public schools succeed in reaching the immigrant group as a whole unless they are in touch with these organizations and are working at least in part, through them? How can they hold the immigrant's interest, unless they understand what he wants and needs as expressed in his own efforts?

Each foreign language organization is a potential educational nucleus. Through mutual contact and discussion of current events, its members learn about the broader aspects of life about them, and become aware of their own deficiencies. Because our foreign language organizations awaken this desire for education and because they are conducting many activities to realize it, they are, for all their deficiencies, rendering a double educational service, both to their own groups and to America.

TRAINING TEACHERS IN SERVICE AND THE ENROLMENT PROBLEM—ABRIDGED

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Probably the casual reader of this subject will feel that the subject involves two distinct problems and as such each should be discussed separately. Indeed an entire program could profitably be devoted to either topic but for lack of time these two problems of adult work are included under one discussion. The enrolment problem is largely solved by the efficiency of the teachers, which in turn, is chiefly determined by their training in service because the majority of them do the work as an avocation rather than as a vocation.

What I shall have to say in reference to my subject is not drawn from generalized facts but from eight years of accrued experience in adult work in South Carolina where, according to the census of 1920, the percentage decrease of illiteracy led the union.

In no field of educational effort must the teacher be so sympathetic, so resourceful, so capable of distinguishing the essential from the non-essential so able to give to the individual his specific needs or so much the interpreter between classes—the learned and the unlearned—the rich and the poor—as in this, the field of elementary instruction of adults.

The reasons are not hard to find:

1. The field is pioneer and so far little suitable material has been prepared. It is the teacher who must translate the material in terms of the pupils' own experiences.
2. There never seems an opportune time for work: in the summer it is company, hot weather and, with us in the south, protracted meetings; in the winter it is cold weather and bad roads.
3. The literate public has not always awakened to its responsibility or share in furthering the success of the work.
4. Classification of pupils is nearly impossible:
 - a. Everything will apparently be getting along all right when the baby gets sick, the wife decides she doesn't like to be left alone, company comes, the mill runs at night, a patent medicine show giving away prizes or a protracted meeting causes first one, then another pupil to be absent, thus making group work practically impossible.
 - b. In a group of twenty pupils there are found many varying abilities and learning accomplishments. One teacher often has pupils ranging from the first grade through the fifth, pupils who can work fractions but who cannot read, pupils who can read well but cannot write.
5. The adult pupil, denied in childhood the opportunity for attending school, now at a real sacrifice of time and strength, attends school on his own initiative prompted by a keen consciousness of definite shortcomings. Unlike the child he can stop once he realizes the school is teaching unrelated facts rather than supplying his concrete needs.

Many other drawbacks could be enumerated but these outstanding facts are sufficient to show that because of these inherent difficulties the teacher must not only know the technic of teaching the elementary branches but he must know how to present them in the vocabulary and experiences of

the adult, as well as through a study of adult psychology, know how to win and maintain the confidence of the illiterate pupils and the illiterate public without whose cooperation the work could not be done.

The history of adult elementary education in South Carolina has been similar to that in other states, starting in 1912 with volunteer teachers enrolling a few hundred pupils the work has developed until this year witnessed the enrolment of over 12,000 pupils taught only by certified teachers paid by legislative and local appropriations amounting to \$65,000.

This growth has been persistent and steady because the state department of education immediately recognized the teaching of adults to be different from the teaching of children, requiring a peculiar skill and special training. In the early stages many earnest persons resented the requirement demanding that teachers of adults hold either a first or second grade certificate. "I may not have a certificate," wrote one teacher from a distance, "but I certainly know enough to teach an illiterate." The very comment showed absolute ignorance of the magnitude of the task.

The South Carolina policy has been to limit the work only to counties and communities where teachers could be trained and properly supervised rather than to scatter energy over a large area doing the work in an unprofessional and indifferent manner. The program for training teachers in service has been definite and specific and is done through the following channels:

1. State and local institutes.
2. Personal visits by state and local supervisor.
3. Follow-up letters from state and local supervisor.
4. Check-up state, county, and local contests.

1. *State and local institutes*—According to our organization schools are organized during the summer in rural communities—called lay-by schools, and at two colleges—called opportunity schools while in the winter the continuation schools are pushed in mill communities. Since a superior type of work is accomplished by specially trained teachers, appointment for teaching now depends on institute attendance. This regulation is made possible because such training is provided to the teachers at practically no expense save that of transportation. Night schools are only encouraged in communities where there is proper supervision and the supervisors or principals of the schools are responsible for getting the teachers to attend.

A week's institute is included in the program of the summer school at Winthrop college, the state college for women where one of the largest summer schools of the south is held. D. B. Johnson feeling that the best contribution the college can make to this phase of education is to aid in training an efficient teaching force, entertains the teachers as guests of the college during this institute. Each local organizer reports to the state supervisor the number of teachers to be employed in his county. The state supervisor in turn notifies the teachers of this institute and the regulation that only teachers attending can draw salary from state funds.

This institute is held from six to eight weeks before actual teaching begins. Here, for one week, these teachers with their state supervisor and county organizers spend from six to eight hours per day studying problems peculiar to adult teaching. The course of study is the same that was at one time given as a regular credit summer school course but because so many teachers needed to take this course who did not need other courses, the change from a credit course to an institute was made.

During the institute the teachers are lodged together and the six hours spent in class discussion represents only a small part of the time devoted to study. At the table, in the halls, and during recreation periods this group of teachers assembled for one purpose only, are found exchanging experiences and making out definite plans for further work. All are learners and all are teachers. In this way an *esprit de corps* is created which could come in no other way. Experienced teachers tell of their successes and failures, of the hardships encountered, of pupil accomplishments, and of the resultant satisfaction which follows such teaching. New teachers thus catch the spirit and are given a vision of real service. They determine that they, too, will go and do likewise.

The course of study is most practical and to the point. Good method teachers often fail because they have not the background for the work, and do not understand the group they are to serve. For this reason a study is made in illiteracy in United States, its causes and effects, as well as what is being done to combat it. In a very concrete manner subjects are discussed as:

How to study a community.

How to take a census.

How to enlist assistance of cooperating agencies.

How to convince an illiterate of the need for schooling.

How to organize a school.

How to classify pupils.

How to arrange a program.

How to secure enrolment and maintain attendance.

How to have a worth while community meeting.

What texts to use.

The organizer and her task.

Methods in each subject essential for successful teaching of adults.

How to make commencement of real educational value.

Demonstration lessons are given. Exhibits of all materials to be used are on display as well as specimen materials from many schools.

It is at this institute that standards for attainment are set by the teachers themselves and thus there is no feeling that orders come down from above.

After a week of intensive study and professional companionship, there comes to this body a group consciousness rarely found among teachers. They have studied their problems as one specific case group, they have found the definite pupil needs, have gained a technic of approach. They realize their work will be measured by many associates and they have determined to make good.

This institute is followed by a one-day local institute in each county or community just prior to the opening of schools. Here again the teachers are entertained by a Chamber of Commerce, a college, or some public spirited organization. The program consists of high-spotting the state institute, of distributing material, and of establishing county standards and aims.

One of the greatest factors in training teachers in service and in encouraging enrolment is the personal oversight of the individual teacher by the supervisor. When the right contacts have been established between supervisor and teachers, the visits of the supervisor become most valuable for they give the teacher an opportunity to share his successes and failures with the supervisor who, instead of being an inspector, becomes a real trainer of teacher and inspirer of pupils. The teacher by his tact and encouragement uses the expected visits of the supervisor as an incentive to the pupils for more thorough work and more definite accomplishment. Since the supervisor and teachers have previously at the institute mapped out the general plan of work this visit acts as a check-up. After observation the supervisor has an opportunity to analyze with the teacher and often with the pupils strong and weak points. The superior teacher needs this assistance just as much as the inefficient teacher for without recognition of his work he might drift into mechanical teaching of unrelated facts. Often the supervisor on his visit can revolutionize the indifferent classroom by asking teacher and pupils to cooperate in working out some definite project, for example, "What my county does for me and what I can do for my county." Definite assignments are given, definite plans are worked out with pupils, definite standards are set, and definite exhibits and reports are requested. Definite acknowledgements and commendations are made by the supervisor. Once such a project has been successfully worked out, the teachers and pupils feel the joy which comes from vitalized teaching and the classroom becomes really an institution of learning.

Again when the supervisor sees indifferent work he can ask the school to join him in an experiment which requires the teaching to be done in a certain way stating, that after a limited time, if learning isn't easier and more rapid they may go back to the old way. And further by aid of certain simple tests the supervisor can show pupils and teachers how they rank in relation to other schools and thus encourage more pointed teaching.

Circular and follow-up letters can be made of valuable assistance in the training of teachers. Such letters are sometimes written to teachers, sometimes to pupils. They are always encouraging in tone and suggestive in content. It is our custom to send a mimeographed synopsis of the monthly report of the all-time special teachers to each school engaged in this work. These have added materially in creating a wholesome rivalry among teachers and pupils and have aided in building up an adult school consciousness. Where term rather than monthly reports are used the

newspapers perform this service. Pupils will work very hard to see their names among the list of perfect attendance.

At certain times the teachers forward specimens of pupils' work to the supervisor who sometimes grades and returns these specimens with a school letter to the pupils. At stated times the supervisor sends a check-up letter which in a way compels systematic stock taking. Such letters also keep teachers and pupils from falling into an indifferent attitude, feeling that no one is interested.

A fourth factor which can be made of incalculable aid in training teachers in service is the local, county, and state contests held at the close of each term. At the beginning of the term the supervisors agree to concentrate on certain lines of work. The supervisor with a group of teachers prepares an outline of the subject matter to be covered and the best methods of presentation. This is immediately given to the teachers and pupils with the instruction that at the close of the school there will be first a local, then a county, and sometimes a state contest. The teachers know the judges use the committee's instructions as guiding principles, therefore, this tends to give a uniformity to our work which otherwise might be haphazard. The wise supervisor and the wise teacher can use these contests as a real motivating power for group accomplishment by appealing to pride of pupils to bring honor to school and community.

In conclusion, it is the duty of the public schools to insist upon such training and equipment of teachers that the adult shall have every facility and encouragement in his belated search for that knowledge which shall open to him the gates of opportunity.

AN ARTICULATED PROGRAM IN ELEMENTARY ADULT EDUCATION—ABRIDGED

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During recent years the extension and development of various forms of education among adults has produced finally a nation-wide "movement" in adult education. Within recent months a national association for adult education has been organized. This association is designed in part to correlate and coordinate, if possible, many activities and interests which fall within a decidedly undefined and indefinite field. Many leaders have come to believe that there are certain common denominators in adult education which may and should be emphasized and that many profitable lines of articulated, cooperative effort may be developed. On the other hand, many are uncertain as to what adult education is and what it should include. At a preliminary organization meeting of the new national association in New York during the winter I was impressed by the fact that many leaders who are quite at home in their own field of education service among adults were distinctly uncertain what relation their work might have

to other forms of adult education and in what ways appropriate forms of articulated local or broader than local effort might be developed. Obviously it is difficult but not impossible to articulate interest and effort in two fields of adult education so apparently unlike but not necessarily different in principle as elementary education among adult illiterates and the non-English-speaking foreign-born and various forms of university extension service of higher grade.

For some time, those engaged in adult education, particularly among adult immigrants, have perceived increasingly that their work impinges upon and is related to other forms of adult education. They have gradually come to believe that it is unwise and educationally unsound to work alone and apart from others similarly engaged but perhaps in other related fields. It was largely for this reason, I understand, that this department of the National Education Association was formed. It was not only to make elementary adult education educationally articulate but also to promote articulated work if possible. That something of this sort is desirable is suggested by the fact that apparently most of those attending these sessions are engaged in various forms of elementary adult education, whereas others concerned with adult education of secondary and higher grade may properly be expected to be present. Doubtless they will be as this department develops.

Americanization, immigrant education, or elementary adult education, whatever it may be called, has reached the point where it is educationally justified and must, therefore, be educationally organized. Its three-fold purpose of nation-building, personality development, and individual group readjustment in and through adult life requires an intelligent organization and development of purpose and plan.

Anyone who has been engaged in the field of education among foreign-born adults over a period of years is conscious of material changes of point of view, program, and methods of organization and work. Until approximately ten years ago much effort among the foreign-born and illiterates including the teaching of English was conducted on a philanthropic and humanitarian basis. The war and nationalistic movements incidental to the war, however, gave it a distinctly patriotic and propagandistic character. Recently efforts among the foreign-born have acquired many more definite and sound educational characteristics.

Through the "Americanization" period of policies and programs, the overwhelming motive was to Americanize foreigners. The most obvious way, apparently, was to teach the common language. Those days were days of extraordinary cooperation. We had a propagandistic form of education, in which almost every available kind of an organization in a community or state or in a nation at large believed it had a legitimate part. In a city, for instance, the roster of cooperating organizations in immigrant education or Americanization frequently included the Chamber of Commerce, Kiwanis, the Rotary Clubs; the D. A. R. and various patri-

otic societies; the American Legion; women's clubs; medical societies; the public library; the association of volunteer firemen; the charity organization society; the association of day nurseries; the old men's home; the public schools and the kindergarten guild. Of course, educationally speaking, under such extraordinary auspices, Americanization played a difficult rôle. Many mistakes were made, many extravagant things were said and done. Notwithstanding, however, out of it all has been born a real educational movement in behalf of men and women of foreign-birth who want and are in need of types of educational service peculiarly suited to their conditions and needs.

Throughout this extraordinary period education for immigrants was vocal and articulate enough, but experience shows its need of greater stability and of those things which give dignity and standing to a type of education which is thoroughly sound, substantial, and worthwhile.

Many of the organizations and much of the type of work that was done in this field five and ten years ago, and even more recently, have disappeared. This was because they have had no educational foundation, no definite purpose, no guiding faith, no well-developed principles of thought, no policy or plan, or any of the things which make for permanency and stability.

Because of the costs of adult education and because this type of education has been under fire; and because waste effort, waste interest and waste of money must be eliminated, constructive thinking and effort are imperative. We need both background and foreground for service.

The democratic character and basis of adult education among both the native and foreign-born and of either elementary or high-grade is something that must necessarily be remembered. We must remind ourselves constantly that a propagandistic plan of organization among adults has yielded largely or is developing into a pure educational program among adults based upon the needs of adults, whoever they are, wherever they come from, whatever their circumstances are, to adjust themselves to a changing world. And when one attempts to adjust himself to a new environment, or when he is trying to feel at home in his world, his efforts involve, necessarily, all of his interests. He may therefore find it desirable to go to school or to join a social group, or to become a member of a musical organization, or to frequent the library, or to attend a trade technical, a continuation or some other kind of school. Or he may go to the movie or to a museum or engage in scores of different things in order to live a more complete life.

The gradual extension of elementary adult education into fields beyond learning English or "becoming a good citizen," or of becoming naturalized or of learning about the history of the United States, or many other such things, means that an articulate program of effort actually has to be articulated. In a community one organization may be carrying on one type of work and others may be doing other things just as desirable. But

each should remember that he is a part of the same picture, and that each will strengthen his own work by collaboration and intelligent comradeship and cooperation with others similarly engaged.

An articulated program of education among adults in any community, city or state involves cooperation of various kinds among the agencies that are not only interested but prepared and competent to serve. The evening schools and the public libraries can easily work together, and it is to their interest to do so. Visits to appropriate industrial and business concerns are effective instruments of education in connection with schools and classes. Museums and art galleries provide special facilities which should be used. State departments of education frequently have valuable collections of stereopticon slides and pictures which should be pressed into use. Colleges and universities, willing and anxious to extend their service upon a community basis, should find a way open to appropriate forms of educational effort among groups of foreign-born who are further advanced than ordinary elementary or even secondary evening schools.

Those engaged in adult education, including its elementary forms, should appreciate the fact that for a long time public libraries have been carrying on their service; that the Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations have been doing their work; that the public evening and extension schools have been operating for years; that employers have conducted classes for employees; that social settlements and what are increasingly known as neighborhood houses, have been carrying on activities among adults since their institution, twenty-five or thirty years ago. But for increasing usefulness on the part of all, more cooperation and more articulated effort among all on a more definite community basis is desirable.

The articulation of educational effort among adults, especially under public auspices, also depends directly upon the way various parts of a city or state educational system desire and do integrate their work. It is time for internal antagonisms, petty rivalries, suspicions, and lack of cooperation within public educational institutions, wherever such exists, to yield to understanding, mutual respect, and cooperative effort. Intolerance, which has not been uncommon, should give way, not only to tolerance but to loyal support. The most difficult pioneering work is over; from now on constructive, integrated, articulated, and cooperative work is imperative. Adult education is beginning a new period in its development; the various phases through which it has passed are ample proof of what it may become.

For this reason it seems desirable and even imperative for those engaged in this field of education to examine critically programs and policies and to develop constructive types of articulated effort. To that end a committee or commission for that purpose may well be set to work. Forms of desirable and possible cooperation with collateral educational local, state, and national organization should be discovered and the machinery set going. Efforts to correlate and integrate, if possible, various forms of adult education locally and nationally, should find a counterpart in efforts to relate va-

rious organizations and agencies definitely interested in or already serving in the special field of adult elementary education. Isolated and unrelated effort readily lends itself to coordinated and articulated endeavor when appropriate efforts are made. Such should be the next steps, perhaps, in the development of the kind of adult education in which this department of the National Education Association is concerned.

For lack of better terms I would like to suggest both longitudinal and latitudinal articulated educational effort. There is need of relating elementary adult education to continued educational organization and effort of secondary, high school, or higher grade. There is also need of relating educational effort cross-section-wise among various agencies so each may strengthen the work of the other. For instance, there are now and should be many more triple alliances between the public libraries, the public evening and extension schools for adults, and educational and improvement societies of the foreign-born. There should be dual alliances between the schools and naturalization authorities such as exist in many communities. For research and service, colleges and universities should be brought into increasingly intimate relationships with elementary forms of adult education largely for the purpose of developing understanding and intelligent leadership.

I trust that this department will appreciate the desirability of an authorized, intelligent study of the possibilities of coordinated, articulated, and perhaps organically related effort among agencies and organizations in order to accomplish what we may reasonably expect.

DETERMINISM AS APPLIED TO OUR TREATMENT OF THE FOREIGN-BORN—ABRIDGED

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I have used the word "determinism" to connote the mental attitude resulting from the conviction that mental traits are largely fixed or determined by hereditary factors and that environmental agencies in general and education in particular have little influence upon them.

As applied to the problems of immigration, the deterministic attitude finds expression in the assumption that there are significant differences in the general levels of native mentality among peoples of different racial stocks. It is a natural inference from this assumption that the immigration of inferior races or sub-races should be discouraged, and that the immigration of superior racial types should be encouraged.

The fact that certain national stocks are backward or undeveloped is not questioned. Whether this inferiority is due to physical heredity or whether it is due in large part to the lack of environmental stimulus and opportunity are questions that possibly should not influence immigration policies. But these questions do have a vital bearing upon our attitude toward and our

treatment of the foreign-born residents now in our midst and upon the educational policies that are adopted with reference to them and particularly with reference to their children.

I shall confine my remarks in the main to the white immigrants from Europe. The native-born negroes admittedly present a different and a far more difficult problem. The Oriental immigrants likewise demand separate treatment. In both cases, a problem is involved that can well be treated quite independently of any question regarding the inherent inferiority of certain racial stocks. I refer to the problem of intermarriage between major races, irrespective of whether one is inferior or superior to the other. Rugg, for example, in testing the intelligence of school children in the Philippines, found no evidence of mental inferiority among the natives as compared with the whites when the effect of the language handicap was canceled. But, of course, the wisdom of intermarriage between the whites and Orientals is in no way guaranteed by this finding.

This question, however, of intermarriage does not complicate our discussion of the white immigrants—at least, in anything approaching the same degree. What we are interested in here is the existence or non-existence of really significant differences in levels of native mentality among the several varieties of the white race.

The investigations that touch upon this problem are fairly numerous. Many of the studies have been excellent pieces of scientific work in a very complicated field of investigation. Kirkpatrick in his recently published monograph, "Intelligence and Immigration," reports his own investigation undertaken to determine especially the influence of the language-factor on test-scores. This study was limited to American, Finnish, Italian, and French-Canadian children enrolled in the schools of three Massachusetts cities. He found evidences of a language handicap when children of non-English-speaking parents are subjected to intelligence tests. Nevertheless, he believes that there are some differences in native mentality among the four groups that he studied. The American and Finnish groups achieved the highest standing and the Italians the lowest, while the French-Canadians came between the two.

But evidence that even those immigrant groups that make relatively low scores on the intelligence tests owe a preponderant part of their relatively low status to lack of native mentality is not nearly convincing enough to warrant one in branding such groups as markedly inferior. Nor does it enable us to predict what will be the situation in three or four generations. These people are with us now for good or for ill. It is their assimilation that is important—their assimilation and the education of their children.

The evidence that I wish to submit has to do with the relative standing of the American states on several important counts for which we now have fairly accurate measures. I shall use for this purpose four measures which reveal the general level of informed intelligence among the people of the several commonwealths; four measures which reflect in a tolerably

accurate fashion the relative levels of basic morality and respect for fundamental law among these state groups; and two measures that can be used to compare the economic efficiency of the several state populations.

The intelligence measures include: (1) the median scores made by the state contingents of troops in the drafted Army when given the intelligence test known as "Army Alpha"; (2) the circulation of 10 widely read magazines proportioned to the population of each state; (3) the circulation of 13 "highbrow" magazines similarly proportioned to each state's population; and (4) the relative production of leaders by each state as measured by the number of persons mentioned in *Who's Who in America* who were born in the state in the decades around 1870. The measures of basic morality and respect for fundamental law were the following: (1) the homicide rates of the states making up the registration-area; (2) the relative proportion of criminals produced by each state as indicated by birth-states of federal prisoners, and (3) by the birth-states of state prisoners in the penitentiaries of New York and California; and (4) the percent of each state's quota of the drafted army (second million of the draft) who were found to be infected with venereal diseases on their arrival at the mobilization camps. As measures of economic efficiency I used: (1) the very careful computations of the per-capita income of the several state populations prepared by O. W. Knauth; and (2) the ratio to this per-capita income of the per-capita savings which were readily computed by reference to the statistics of savings institutions published by the bureau of the census.

When the several states are ranked on the basis of each of these ten measures, a rather remarkable degree of resemblance is found among the rankings. Generally speaking, the states that stand high on one measure tend to stand high on all of the other measures; the states that have a low rank on one measure tend to have a low rank on all measures; and the mediocre states on one count tend to be mediocre on all counts. There are exceptions, of course, but the general agreement is so very close as to indicate clearly that the measures have a high degree of reliability.

The states with the heaviest proportions of foreign-born inhabitants tend on all of these ten measures to stand very high. Let us take, for example, the measures that reflect the general levels of morality and respect for fundamental law. The state that has the highest proportion of foreign-born ranks number 6 among the 48 states in relative freedom from homicides. When all four of the "moral" measures are combined, that state (Rhode Island) is number 5 among the forty-eight. In the state that has the highest rank on these moral measures (New Hampshire), 20 percent of the population was reported as foreign-born by the census of 1920, and a larger percent of courses represented the first and second generation of foreign-born parentage. Massachusetts, which reported 28 percent of population as foreign-born in 1920, has a consistently high place on all of these measures. Much has been said regarding the responsibility of the foreign-born for the very high crime-ratios of our country, but it is only fair to point out that there is a substantial negative correlation (0.68) between the proportion of foreign-born in the population of the several

states and the prevalence of serious crime in these states as represented by their murder rates. There is the same high correlation (this time positive, however) between the proportion of foreign-born in the several states and the rank of these states on the combined moral measures which reflect relative freedom from serious crime, a relatively low production of criminals, and relatively low rates of venereal disease among the states' quotas of the drafted army.

There is one further comparison that I wish to emphasize. When I combine statistically all of these ten measures of intelligence, morality, and economic efficiency, and then make a combined ranking for the forty-eight states, I find holding the first place the state of Massachusetts. The fourth place on this combined ranking is held by Connecticut, and the fifth place by Rhode Island. Thus the three states that have had the heaviest burden of immigration in proportion to their population are among the first five states on this combined ranking.

Most significant of all, perhaps, is the fact that Massachusetts among the forty-eight states holds this position of outstanding leadership under what the determinist would regard as a quite insuperable handicap. This handicap has been imposed by a constant stream of immigration from Europe and a constant draining off of her original Nordic stock through emigration westward. This process has been going on for three generations and more. The immigration has comprised in the main what the determinist would regard as unpromising materials. It has represented nations whose native-sons, when measured by Army Alpha, made tolerably low median scores—nations that are classed usually as Mediterranean and Alpine in racial stock. These immigrants and their first, second, and third-generation descendants now constitute at least two thirds and probably three fourths of the population of Massachusetts. And yet this commonwealth, on the basis of ten demonstrably trustworthy measures, is our leading American state.

The lesson, I think, is obvious enough. Our pessimists to the contrary notwithstanding, the "melting-pot" *has worked*. It is the excellent schools of Massachusetts and Connecticut and Rhode Island that have accomplished this miracle. It does make some difference, I think, what kind of materials we put into the melting-pot; but I have a notion that the kind of a melting-pot that we put them into is vastly more important.

PROGRESS IN ADULT EDUCATION DURING THE PAST YEAR

ROBERT C. DEMING, PRESIDENT, DEPARTMENT OF ADULT EDUCATION,
NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, AND STATE DIRECTOR
OF AMERICANIZATION, HARTFORD, CONN.

One year ago at Indianapolis, President Herlihy reported the number of states having laws establishing or permitting the work of adult elementary education. Figures are not available at this time to change that

report, but from many other parts of the country have come requests for model legislation, and the widespread interest indicates a general rededication to the educational ideal stated by Jefferson that "a democracy depends upon the diffusion of knowledge among all its people." Public educators are beginning to grasp the idea that their job is not only to educate the children but to obtain a literate, English-speaking community.

The next speaker, our representative in the U. S. Bureau of Education at Washington, will tell you that he called upon this department last winter for three things which may be thought of as the essential machinery for our state-wide work:

1. Cooperative state and local programs in adult education for native and foreign-born;
2. Normal school courses for the prospective teachers of such pupils;
3. A cooperative program between the Bureau of Naturalization and the schools in citizenship training.

A February conference of some thirty specialists was summoned to cover the above subjects, and three days of intensive work and many subsequent convocations produced material on those projects that is now available at Washington in very practical form.

Two other projects of national importance grew out of the conference mentioned above.

One relates to the 1930 U. S. Census and the proposal to include therein a literacy-in-English test, upon which a committee reports at this conference. The nation's educators are exceedingly anxious to include in the census a simple and practical test which will reveal the number of adults who are unable to participate intelligently in our democracy through inability to read a paragraph in simple English with understanding. The value of such information would be incalculable.

A second project, humble as it sounds, may have far reaching results. A committee on illiteracy posters is to report. Carefully designed and selected and distributed by the government throughout the land, much can be accomplished thereby.

The majority of us are absorbed in our daily tasks, and in our interests in methods, devices, texts, courses of study, and organization in our respective schools, towns, and states. We are first and last educators who strive to be progressive. Once a year at least we emerge like a turtle from under the surface to see if we can recognize familiar landmarks and to see whither we are drifting. Let us do so now as a department and as individuals.

We are appalled and are encouraged by what we see. A great field called "adult education" is before us, a field relatively new to educators. We occupy the immediate foreground as a national organization of that title, but we only occupy a small part of that field. The eyes of all educators are in our direction, so much so that Secretary Crabtree has written

that he "expects more progress in adult education in the next ten years than in any other field of educational endeavor."

And now for the popular and comprehensive interpretation of the title "adult education."

That subject has been extraordinarily neglected in this country. The vocational subjects, self-supporting for the most part, have been recognized by educators and others, in so far as financially successful, but the non-vocational opportunities, for those living in a mechanical age that struggles for the expression of personality, and which puts a premium upon production and efficiency—and leisure time, are not accessible to the man of moderate means who seeks specific knowledge and happiness.

England and Denmark lead in the development and organization of this field, and other nations of Europe are more progressive than we. This is partly due to the effort to rise above "class," partly to governmental effort to infuse nationalism. But in this country we have five times as many in adult education, so-called, than in all our colleges and universities. Does this offer a field of expansion and development through organization?

There are some, at this point, who will say "a visionary far afield," but let them look again. On this very program are speakers on "Determinism," on "An Articulate Program of Adult Education," and on "Tests and Measures," all problems that are the immediate concern of all in the broader field.

How many pupils drop out of your classes during the year? Why? Why were their efforts wasted? How many of your pupils are worthy of better things, to promotion to special classes in study that do not exist now, and how many here have discovered in your classes the genius, penniless, and no place to go? If the business of making the better citizen, and making the citizen better is not a common problem, then we should like to know why not.

The immediate question is, "Are we to redefine our immediate interests, or are we to expand at once into sub-divisions of interest with a greatly increased organization and a departmental membership that should run into the thousands?" I commend this to you for your thoughtful consideration and discussion before the forthcoming business meeting tomorrow.

IMMIGRATION PROBLEMS—ABRIDGED

WILLIAM P. HOLADAY, U. S. REPRESENTATIVE FROM ILLINOIS,
DANVILLE, ILL.

For one hundred years, immigrants in an ever-increasing stream have poured into America.

For the ten years immediately preceding the World War, this stream of immigrants had increased to an average of over one million per year.

While the World War was on, immigration was halted, but only temporarily, as with the close of the war the immigrants again sought our shores. In the early part of 1921, the reports indicated that the close of the 1921 fiscal year would show the entry of almost one million immigrants and the fiscal year of 1922 promised the entry of two million more.

The census bureau reported fourteen million foreign-born people in the United States. Eleven states reported from twenty to thirty percent of their population as foreign-born. Most of our large cities reported a foreign-born population of approximately thirty percent and in some cities the foreign-born population amounted to forty-two percent.

With fourteen million foreign-born already here and with a threatened increase of two million more per year, Congress hastily and as an emergency act, passed in May of 1921, our first restrictive immigration act.

This act limited the number of annual immigrants from each country to a number corresponding to three percent of the number of people from such country as were in the United States in 1910.

In May of 1922, the act of 1921 was extended by a joint resolution for a term of two years.

In December of 1923, the House Committee on Immigration and Naturalization conducted an extensive and thorough investigation. Public hearings, extending over many weeks, were held. The reports and statistics of the Bureau of Immigration were carefully studied. Confidential reports on conditions in foreign countries were received and considered.

The alarming features of the Committee investigation may be partially and roughly summarized as follows:

1. Ten million immigrants were awaiting an opportunity to come to the United States.
2. Efforts were being made in some countries to dump into the United States, their criminals, agitators, mental defectives, moral degenerates, and other undesirable classes.
3. Certain foreign-born groups already here were demanding the entry of more of their nationality for purposes incompatible with our public welfare.
4. Our deportation and naturalization laws were lax and were difficult of administration.
5. The fourteen million foreign-born were not equally distributed throughout the United States, but were massed in unwieldy groups in certain localities.

The Committee thereupon decided upon a tentative program that contemplated:

The enactment of a permanent immigration law.

The enactment of an alien criminal deportation law, and the re-codification and strengthening of our naturalization laws.

This program has been fifty percent completed. The permanent immigration law has been enacted. The Alien Criminal Deportation Law

has been passed by the House of Representatives and is now pending in the Senate. The re-codification of our naturalization laws will be considered at the next session of Congress.

European countries are 'emigrant sending countries, while the United States is an immigrant receiving country. Previous to the 1924 Act, emigrants leaving the old world came to the United States. Within the last five years, there has been a gradual increase in European emigration to Australia and South American countries.

For the fiscal year beginning today, we will permit the entry of 162,000 immigrants. A desire for admission to the United States has been indicated by 1,600,000 more.

Emigration from a particular country may be desirable at one period and undesirable at another period, depending on conditions in this country or on conditions in the immigrants' native land. Immigration matters with reference to the Italian, Jew and Russian are today somewhat troublesome, not on account of race inferiority but on account of circumstances local to each group and in each case, entirely different.

Italian—Italy is experiencing a great economic and political revolution. Passion is running high. A crowded and ever-increasing population is demanding new territory into which it may expand.

Mussolini is fanning the flame of national pride.

He hesitates to recognize the renunciation of Italian citizenship by the Italian emigrant and proclaims, "Once an Italian, always an Italian." He refuses passports to wives and children in order that the emigrant father in the United States will send his wages back to Italy. By propaganda, he is attempting to involve men of Italian birth, now in the United States, both American citizens and non-citizens, in the political affairs of Italy.

Jewish—The Jewish race has for more than twenty centuries been the object of oppression in Europe. In America the Jew has been comparatively free from oppression. This freedom from oppression, together with the greater economic opportunities offered by America, has made America the goal of millions of Jews. Even in America, Anti-semitism has undoubtedly gained ground within the last few years.

What may at times appear to be a racial prejudice is only the manifestation of the fear on the part of Americans that American institutions and American ideals are endangered by the presence of a great unassimilated mass of any alien group.

It is our duty to allay and prevent race prejudice and to offer every opportunity and facility for our foreign-born to fall into step with America's progress. No greater service can be rendered our foreign-born than to restrict immigration and thus give those already here a better opportunity to become assimilated.

No class of our foreign-born will profit more from restricted immigration than will the Jews.

Today, some Jewish publications and many able Jewish leaders have

recognized this danger, and are supporting the principles of restricted immigration and the deportation of alien criminals.

American Jew and American Gentile must realize that their interests in America are one and the same.

Russian—The ideals of the present Russian government have little in common with American ideals. Russia is governed by an indistinguishable blending of Socialism, Communism, and Anarchy and the executive orders are administered by force. The present Russian régime is prone to refuse passports to desirable emigrants and are attempting to fill the Russian quota with persons whom they consider undesirable or with Communists and Anarchists whose chief purpose in coming to the United States is to preach their doctrines in America.

The serious alien problems now confronting us do not arise from the passage of the 1924 Restrictive Immigration Act, but arise by reason of our failure to pass such an act twenty-five years earlier. If our foreign-born population was limited to those aliens that have entered our country since 1924, the problem would be comparatively simple. The serious situation develops around those fourteen million foreign-born who came here before 1924.

While those fourteen million aliens were arriving, our immigration laws were exceedingly lax and they permitted the entry of a large number of criminals, mental defectives, and other undesirable aliens.

The Alien Criminal Deportation Act is designed to remove that small percent of the total alien population who are a menace, not only to our country but to the remaining percent of our foreign-born.

No alien who has lawfully entered America and who has respected and obeyed her laws will be harrassed or caused any inconvenience by the Alien Criminal Deportation Act.

Alien Seamen—The provisions of the Seamen Act present serious difficulties in the enforcement of our immigration law. The Seamen Act is based on the theory that a seaman should not be a slave, bound to his vessel, but that he should have the right to quit his vessel when he so desires. The Act provides that an alien seaman on any vessel arriving at a port of the United States shall have the right to quit his ship and that he shall have sixty days in which to re-ship foreign. During these sixty days, he is entitled to shore leave.

This sixty days period gives the alien seaman an opportunity of deserting his calling and secluding himself in the interior of our country. Consequently, a great many deserting alien seamen are unlawfully remaining in the United States. It is impossible to completely stop this leak without repealing the Seamen Act and as such repeal is not desirable, Congress is now attempting to devise a plan that will reduce alien seamen desertions to a minimum without destroying the Seamen Act.

Alien Registration—Considerable sentiment exists for the enactment of a law requiring all aliens to register. The advocates of alien registration contend that with a complete registration, the government will then be in

a position to better control and prevent the criminal activities of aliens and to more rapidly deport the undesirables. The registration plan is not without merit. There are, however, many valid objections to such a plan. If the aliens themselves will lend their moral support to the maintenance of our restrictive immigration law and to the enactment and strict enforcement of the Alien Criminal Deportation Law and will resist the efforts of not only foreign-born, but native born Anarchists and Communists to destroy our government, registration may not be necessary.

Canada and Mexico—The quota provisions of the 1924 Act do not apply to Canada and Mexico. While we annually receive a considerable number of immigrants from Canada, this immigration does not present any difficult aspects. Canada, in matters of language, ideals of government, living and social standards, is comparable with the United States, and her emigrants take their place within our ranks without causing confusion.

The Mexican situation is more complicated. Immigration from Mexico is assuming alarming aspects. The Mexican immigrant is largely of the peon class. They are illiterate and have no conception of American ideals or American standards of living. The extension of the quota law to Mexico without a similar extension to Canada may present some difficulty from a diplomatic standpoint, but such extension is desirable and eventually will come.

Relief of Relatives—Previous to the enactment of the 1924 Act, a considerable percent of our immigrants consisted of married men who left their relatives in their native country, hoping to bring their families to America when their improved economic condition would permit. The quota numbers under the present law is not sufficient to permit these families to now join the husband in America. Legislation that will permit the entry of such families is now being considered.

The propaganda for the relief of relatives is more or less a smoke screen to hide a general attack on restrictive immigration. Those aliens who came to America previous to July 1, 1921 have now had sufficient time to acquire citizenship, and if they had done so, they have the right under the present law to bring in their wives and unmarried children under eighteen years of age. Aliens coming here since July 1, 1924 came with a full knowledge of our permanent restricted immigration policy.

It is estimated by the proponents of relief legislation that the wives and children of those aliens who came here between July 1, 1921 and July 1, 1924 and have filed their declaration for citizenship, number about seventy-five thousand.

Within the next twelve months, one third of the aliens coming between July 1, 1921 and July 1, 1924 will have had an opportunity to acquire citizenship and bring their families to America. In addition to the twenty-five thousand who will be admitted as the wives and children of citizens, several thousand more will gain admission under the quota law.

Within the twenty-four months most of these seventy-five thousand relatives will be admitted without any relief legislation.

Burden of Proof—The great underlying and all important change that has been made in recent legislation, is in regard to the criminal alien, who, when arrested, stood mute, refusing to give his name, refusing to state where and when he entered our country, and it was necessary for our immigration officials not only to identify the arrested alien, but by a process of elimination, to prove his unlawful entry. Now, the criminal alien must prove his lawful entry.

All that the lawfully admitted alien has to do in order to prove his lawful entry is to state his name, time and place of entry and the Department of Labor will produce the records to substantiate his claim. The provisions of the law fixing time limits and grounds for deportation are but details. Under this shifting of the burden of proof, the alien unlawfully here may be readily deported and the alien lawfully here is not caused inconvenience.

Examination abroad—In the 1924 Immigration Act, provision was made for the examination of immigrants at their port of embarkation. The Department of Labor has been rapidly extending this branch of the service and today more than seventy percent of our immigrants are examined before they sail for America. Within the near future, all of the intending immigrants will be examined in their native country.

This plan has relieved intending immigrants of many hardships and at the same time, has given us a better class of immigrants.

Americanization—The Americanization of our aliens is receiving our careful consideration. In the work of Americanization, foreign newspapers claim our attention. Foreign language newspapers may be a benefit or a detriment to the Americanization of the alien, depending entirely upon the attitude of the individual paper. An alien may be well intentioned and a desirable candidate for citizenship, yet he may not be able to read the English language. If such alien has the opportunity to gather the news of the day from a newspaper printed in his native language, such opportunity is desirable if the paper is loyal to America and presents American ideals in the proper light. If, however, the paper is disloyal and spreads dissension and disrespect for American institutions, such paper is a hindrance to the Americanization of the alien.

To maintain and improve the public school system of America is to insure the future of our nation. Our public schools are doing more for the complete Americanization of the foreign-born than any other agency or combination of agencies is doing.

But a note of warning may here be sounded.

Communitistic and other un-American organizations are attempting to gain entrance into the schoolroom in order to instil into the minds of our youth a distrust and hatred for the ideals of our nation and thus undermine the home and religious life of America.

Organized society cannot function without the stabilizing and ennobling influence of the marriage vow, the home, and the church.

America neglected the alien menace too long for her best interests. Those high standards of everyday life and her revered ideals of patriotism that have made America what she is today have been endangered and in some instances, damaged, but the damage is not irreparable.

We know the danger. We know efforts emanating from un-American sources, are attempting to open gaps in the protecting wall of restrictive immigration.

With calm consideration, we must study every charge made against the law, and if there be merit in any charge, we must have courage to right the wrong, even though the charge may come from un-American and an unpatriotic source. We must also have courage to resist the charge that is not justified when examined under the searching light of true Americanism which is the uncrystallized and murmuring expression of organized America, as she endeavors for her own protection to locate the roadway of her destiny, among the criss-crossing bypaths of all nations.

We must harken to the voice of the conscience of America, and to that voice only.

THE TEACHING OF AMERICANISM—ABRIDGED

FRANK CROSS, NATIONAL DIRECTOR OF AMERICANISM, AMERICAN LEGION
INDIANAPOLIS, INDIANA

A nationally prominent magazine recently began a definite contest by asking its readers to submit a definition of Americanism. From the definitions submitted, twenty were selected for publication. I was very much interested in reading them. A part of them were cynical or questionably humorous, but among them were two which struck me very favorably. The first was written by a man in my former home city, Denver, Colorado. "Americanism," he said, "is an idea of loyal patriotism, religious tolerance, righteous freedom, fearless courage, honest integrity, abiding faith in the commanding destiny of the United States, and a fathomless love for the principles which led our forefathers to found this commonwealth." The second definition of my choice was written by a man in the state where I now make my residence; that is, Indiana. "Americanism," asserts this man, "stands for world-wide freedom and democracy. It is akin to that age-old, universal yearning to be free from tyranny and oppression, and it is not a product of America so much as America is a product of it. Indeed its universality is its cardinal principle and insures the abundant life for all humanity. Wherever a people, tolerant and forbearing, scornful of haughtiness and bigotry, stand together mutually striving to make free to all an equal opportunity to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness, there is Americanism pure and undefiled. Americanism is applied Christianity."

I have chosen these two definitions because they both emphasize the idea of tolerance and personal liberty. In other words I prefer the definition which describes ideal Americanism. It is a definition that needs to be loudly proclaimed from the lecture platform, in the press, and particularly in the schoolroom. Certainly any philosophy that nurtures intolerance, bigotry, deceit, and obscurantism is not worthy to be called Americanism.

I therefore say that the first obligation of the teacher, who wishes to inculcate true Americanism, is to speak the truth and to speak it fearlessly. Who will stand in defence against the hordes of ignorance who strive for dominance by the suppression of the free intercourse of ideas if teachers fail? The worst enemies of our nation today surge forward under the banners of some of the highest virtues. It should be the duty of good Americans and good Christians to combat these evils and to annihilate them before they corrupt the principles on which our forefathers established the nation.

It is well—it is highly desirable to teach a child or the adult to respect the flag but it is far more important to teach him to respect truth. The flag is worthy of respect just so long as, and no longer than, it is the emblem of truth. It is excellent to teach a child or adult to revere Washington and Jefferson and Lincoln, but it is far more important that he revere the courage, the devotion, and the honesty which these men embodied.

The great fight of American patriots today is not against the forces of red radicalism; it is against the forces of black obscurantism, militant ignorance. The forces of obscurantism are frequently powerful and well-accepted. To oppose them requires the utmost fearlessness and devotion to principle. The teacher who goes at his task, always carrying high the banner of wholesome truth and enlightenment, is worthy in the highest degree of the title of patriot.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Philadelphia Meeting

The Department of Adult Education of the National Education Association met in the auditorium of the Y. M. C. A. in Philadelphia on Monday, June 28, 1926 at 2 P.M. There were approximately two hundred present.

The meeting was called to order by the President, R. C. Deming, and the following announcements were made:

1. The Adult Education Department would go to Wilmington, Delaware on Wednesday afternoon rather than to Newark as had been announced previously.
2. A Resolutions Committee consisting of L. R. Alderman, Alfred Rejall, and Catherine Finnegan was appointed.
3. An expression of appreciation was given to the people of Philadelphia for their cooperation, especially in placing the very excellent exhibit of charts and textbooks.
4. The work of the Interstate Bulletin by W. C. Smith was warmly commended.

The program was begun by the address of President R. C. Deming upon the progress of adult education during the past year. He stated that the United States Bureau of Education had called upon the adult department for three things which were considered essential: (1) cooperative state and local programs in adult education for native and foreign-born, (2) normal school courses for the prospective teachers of such pupils, (3) a cooperative program between the Bureau of naturalization and the schools in citizenship training. The president's address, in full, may be found in the proceedings.

Between the addresses of the third and fourth speakers on the afternoon's program, the following auditing committee was elected: Mr. Castle, Pennsylvania, Miss Connor, Connecticut, and Miss Walker, Ohio. At this time, too, a meeting of the committee on posters was called by L. R. Alderman.

The afternoon session adjourned at 4:15 to meet June 29 at the same time and place.

The first speaker on the Tuesday's program, Miss Lyles of Oklahoma, was unable to be present, but was very ably represented by Mr. Kerr of the Oklahoma Department of Education.

A roll call of the states was made on Tuesday afternoon. There were twenty-eight states represented. Following the Tuesday afternoon's program, the annual business session was held.

The business meeting was called to order by the President. By vote of those present the reading of the minutes of the 1925 meeting was dispensed with.

The report of the Treasurer, Miss Richardson, was given by Miss Gray, of South Carolina, in Miss Richardson's absence. It was given as follows:

Amount in Treasury at beginning of year..... \$155.00

Receipts

Amount received for Membership dues.....	279.00
Donation from member of department.....	20.00

————— \$454.00

Disbursements

Items of expense incurred by the Department of Adult Education:

Printing of membership cards.....	\$44.50
to Charles M. Herlihy.....	9.75
to Elizabeth R. Witt.....	4.93
to United American for Proceedings of Indianapolis meeting	150.00
to Resolutions transcript	3.00

————— \$172.18

Balance in the Treasury this 18th day of June, 1926..... \$281.82

Respectfully submitted, ETHEL RICHARDSON,

Treasurer, Adult Education Department.

The Secretary's report was read and accepted.

The report from the Committee on Resolutions was called for, but as it was unfinished a motion was made to defer the reading until Thursday.

Motion carried. On Thursday, the Resolutions Committee reported as follows:

Report of Resolutions Committee

The following report of the Committee on Resolutions is hereby respectfully submitted:

Lewis R. Alderman, *Chairman*, Catherine Finnegan, and Alfred Rejall.

1. Be it resolved, That this department extend a vote of gratitude to the people and local organizations in Philadelphia, who by their interest and support have done so much toward making our meeting a success.

2. Be it resolved that special thanks be extended to Edwin Bach of the Philadelphia Chamber of Commerce for his most generous assistance at all times and in every manner to the department collectively and to the members individually; we recommend that the Secretary of the Department be instructed to transmit a copy of this resolution to the Secretary of the Chamber of Commerce of Philadelphia.

3. Be it resolved that special thanks be extended to the Philadelphia Central Y. M. C. A., particularly to Mr. William MacNair and the educational department for use of the building, the regular "Y" privileges and the many courtesies shown us throughout the entire meeting; we recommend that a copy of this resolution be transmitted to the General Secretary of the Y. M. C. A. of Philadelphia, Mr. Walter Wood.

4. Be it resolved that we extend our thanks, congratulations, and admiration to our associates from the state of Delaware for the excellent and inspiring demonstration of the operation of the final steps in the naturalization process to which we were invited. We feel certain that the entire Department has gained strength and aspiration as a result of witnessing this unusual event.

5. Whereas the United States of America stands in the eyes of the civilized world as committed to a policy of universal education, and whereas, it has been repeatedly stated by competent persons in this Department that the importance of elementary education does not vary with the age of the student, that the opportunity for education is the right of each and every person, regardless of age, creed, race, or place of birth, that the opportunity for education should not be limited to any special time of the day or year, and that the offering of the opportunity for adult elementary education is the responsibility of the public schools of this nation:

Be it therefore resolved, That this Department commits itself to the proposition, that education for adults who voluntarily seek it should be an organic part of free universal public education, that the opportunity for such education should be offered by the public schools, at such times and in such places as meet the needs and convenience of the students. That elementary education for children and elementary education for adults are not two separate independent units, but are only two phases of the same unit, that the major objectives in education do not vary between the education of children and the education of adults. That in a local school system the teachers of children and the teachers of adults should have a definite understanding of their common major objectives in education, and, that all administrative officers, supervisors, and teachers in elementary education for adults must maintain the high professional standard and the scientific methods of research which have been established by the teaching profession of the nation.

6. Whereas the success of the adult education movement depends upon the active cooperation of all agencies, both public and private, interested in the welfare and education of adults.

Be it resolved, That this Department requests cooperation on the part of all

such agencies, to utilize every means at their disposal to help reduce illiteracy before the year 1930, when the next federal census is to be taken.

7. Whereas there is urgent need for greater uniformity in the execution of the Naturalization Law.

Be it resolved, That this Department requests Congress to give most careful consideration to this matter. We recommend that a copy of this resolution be sent to the Chairman of the appropriate committee in both the Senate and the House of Representatives.

8. Whereas experience clearly shows that state aid is necessary for a successful program of adult education.

Be it resolved, That this Department recommend to our state legislators that they provide adequate funds and take such necessary steps that will promote the cause of adult education in their respective states.

9. Whereas experience shows that the education of inmates in both prison and reform institutions who are to be returned to society is generally neglected.

Be it resolved, That this department recommend the establishment of a definite state policy looking toward the education in English and other subjects leading toward vocational and civic efficiency in every state of the union.

10. Whereas this department has officially created a medium of information and exchange known as the Interstate Bulletin we recommend it to all workers in this field and urge fullest support thereof.

11. Whereas the continuation school movement throughout the country is one of growing importance to the welfare of the students at a most critical period of life we urge the strengthening and developing of this type of school and education, and strongly recommend that steps be generally taken to coordinate this type of education with the adult education program throughout the land.

12. Whereas we believe that the reading and writing of English understandingly should be a qualification for citizenship, and also a qualification for voting.

Be it resolved that we urge upon Congress and the President the wisdom of adding the ability to read and write English understandingly as an additional qualification for citizenship, and that such a test be administered by the federal agencies already in existence in conjunction with the Bureau of Education. We further recommend to such states as are not already provided with literacy test for voting that they adopt such a test of reading and writing English understandingly, to be administered by the educational authorities of the state.

13. Whereas the present figures on illiteracy obtained by the United States Census Bureau represent only the number of those over ten years of age who cannot write their name in any language, and

Whereas the progress of education is retarded by the lack of adequate statistical information in the census and

Whereas it is unwise to classify as literate those able to pass the present test and

Whereas the Secretary of Commerce has stated that he would welcome any move on the part of the National Education Association to determine their policy and specific recommendations in this method and

Whereas a test for such literacy will give valuable information relative to our native and foreign-born, to our national system of education and to the better functioning of our democracy,

Be it resolved, That a test be formulated for literacy in English that will give the nation statistics as to the number of those unable to read a simple paragraph in English understandingly, and that it be presented to the Secretary of Commerce with a request that it be included in the 1930 United States census.

14. That this Department urge Resolutions Committee of the National Education Association to give most careful consideration to Resolutions 12 and 13 above

respectively with a view to their adoption in the general recommendations of the entire Association.

15. Resolved that this Department believes in the principle contained in H. J. Res. 283 of June 24, 1926, which has for its purpose the reuniting of the families of declarants who apply for citizenship between the years July 1, 1921, and July 1, 1924, and that a telegram be sent to Congressman Jacobstein, author of the joint resolution now before Congress to this effect.

Respectfully submitted, ALFRED REJALL

L. R. ALDERMAN

CATHERINE FINNEGAN.

Motion was made that the Department of Adult Education go on record as denouncing the situation that existed in New York with regard to the number of adults required to be taught by one teacher. It was the consensus of opinion that under ordinary circumstances the number should range between twelve to twenty. Motion carried.

A motion was made that several months before the annual meeting of the National Education Association the secretary should send an invitation to all states to have a representative at this meeting. Motion carried.

A motion was made that W. C. Smith, of New York, and those who have faithfully assisted him in publishing the Interstate Bulletin be given a vote of thanks and that the secretary write these people letters of appreciation. Motion carried.

The following motions with regard to financing the Interstate Bulletin were made and carried:

That W. C. Smith, State Board of Education, Albany, New York, be authorized as business manager to write, sign, and endorse checks for the Interstate Bulletin on Adult Education, which is the authorized publication of the Department of Adult Education of the National Education Association.

That the business manager of the Interstate Bulletin may draw upon the treasury of the Department of Adult Education, upon the authorization of the president, for a sum not exceeding at any time more than half the balance in the treasury from the previous fiscal year plus the subscriptions for the fiscal year, and that the annual financial report of the Interstate Bulletin be turned over to the Auditing Committee for their report at the annual meeting.

The following report from the Committee on Posters was made by Mr. Alderman in the absence of Mrs. B. C. Jones, chairman:

The Delaware poster is to be adopted now. The work for the future to be placed on a basis of competition. Report accepted.

The report of the Committee on Naturalization was read by Mr. Deming in the absence of Miss Burnett, the chairman, in California. It was as follows:

"This committee is composed of extremely busy people living great distances apart. For that reason its business has been conducted largely through correspondence, since no more than three of its members have been able to come together at any time. Following is a brief summary of what has been accomplished:

"1. Agreed that in view of the steadily increasing number of aliens applying each year for citizenship, naturalization was of sufficient importance to the welfare of the country to have the law regulating its standards and method of procedure as nearly perfect as it is possible to make it. That the standards and procedure in the present law are inadequate and permit of practices that fail to dignify and properly evaluate American citizenship.

"2. Tested the reaction of a sufficient number of organizations to feel sure that there would be no difficulty in securing nation-wide support of legislation providing more satisfactory standards and procedure for naturalization. Resolved, that it was the duty of this committee to work for such a law and to make recommendations for such parts of it as workers in the field of immigrant education who were

qualified by training and experience to do so believed would secure such standards and procedure.

"Investigated the content and status of pending legislation and found that Senate Bill 4255, making it discretionary for United States District Court Judges to make examination of petitioners for naturalization in open court, had been passed by both houses and had been signed by the President. This was done to relieve the congestion of court calendars in large cities. It has been suggested that it was in the nature of a temporary relief measure and may not be permanent.

"It was also found that H. R. 11518, a comprehensive bill affecting several aspects of naturalization, including educational qualifications for petitioners, had been introduced into the House by Mr. Johnson, of Washington, but is not likely to be acted upon by both houses at this session of Congress.

"3. In cooperation with a committee on naturalization acting at a meeting called by L. R. Alderman, Specialist in Adult Education of the U. S. Bureau of Education, in February, 1926, secured from the chairman of the Joint Committee on Immigration and Naturalization the assurance that recommendations from workers in the field of immigrant education would be welcomed and be given careful consideration in the revision of naturalization laws that would probably be made at the next session of Congress.

"4. Has tabulated and summarized the recommendations received by the chairman, regarding educational qualifications for petitioners for naturalization in a nation-wide study of the situation last year. With this as a basis has begun the consideration of what should be included in recommendations submitted by this committee for incorporation in the new law.

"5. With the approval of prominent officers of the American Bar Association and through the effort of one of its active members, is requesting that association at its next meeting to consider the question of naturalization with the idea of taking any action that it may deem necessary for the naturalization the recognition it deserves in the courts of the country and to make such recommendations as may seem desirable for incorporation in any new legislation affecting naturalization.

"Inasmuch as the committee is in the midst of a piece of work that could not be turned over to a new committee without considerable loss of momentum, it recommends that it be continued for the purpose of completing the work now under way with any additions or changes in its personnel that the President of the Department might care to consider.

"Respectfully submitted,

MARGUERITE H. BURNETT
RAYMOND MOLEY
JOHN J. MAHONEY

ETHEL RICHARDSON
CHARLES FINCH
HOWARD BRADSTREET."

The last report to be accepted was that of the Committee on a 1930 United States Census Test for Literacy-in-English. Mr. Rejall made this report as follows:

"The Committee on a 1930 U. S. Census Test for Literacy-in-English is composed of Wil Lou Gray, South Carolina; William C. Smith, New York; F. A. Blair, Illinois; D. M. Herlihy, Massachusetts; A. W. Castle, Pennsylvania; L. R. Alderman, Washington, D. C.; A. E. Rejall, New York; R. C. Deming, Connecticut. Its purpose is to obtain the inclusion in the 1930 Census of a test for Literacy-in-English that would give the nation figures on those unable to read a simple paragraph in English with understanding, a test that would mean something in terms of a functioning citizenship.

"In terms of education the present test for illiteracy represents an irreducible minimum. Any less education would mean absolutely no education. The present figures are interesting and valuable as indicating the number of those absolutely without schooling. They may even through shame stimulate public educational activity. Public educators, however, violently object to classifying as "literate" those able to pass this test.

"This is a test for real literacy to give valuable information relating to our native and foreign-born, to our national system of education, and to the functioning of our democracy. It will be a 1930 Census on the nation's education in citizenship. It will determine that point at which literacy in English begins.

"The committee has agreed upon the instructions to be given the census enumerators, the form, and method of administering the test, and the minimum word list of 319 words. It has listed twenty sentences in question form to be printed each upon a card for the examiner's use. It has estimated the time of administering the test as of 30 seconds, the cost in printing material by the government as at \$1,000 for the nation.

"Thus far has the committee gone in its conclusions. It has yet to meet the withering blasts from the Census Bureau, but it hopes to proceed, serenely conscious of the value of its project and its faith in its own judgment.

"We hope that the committee will be continued for even greater efficiency, particularly in the light of a paragraph in Mr. Hoover's letter of June 14, 1926:

"I should judge that an appropriate time for such hearings and discussion would be at least two years off. In the meantime, of course, we welcome any moves on the part of the National Education Association or any other interested body to determine their own policy and formulate their own specific recommendations."

"A copy of the word list and instructions to the examiner is attached to this report, which is herewith respectfully submitted."

Instructions to the Examiner

"Column 17. Literacy-in-English test. Write "no" for any person 10 years of age or over who declares himself unable to read simple English understandingly. To all others, 10 years of age or over, administer the test.

"The purpose of this test is to ascertain the number of those over 10 years of age who are unable to read a simple sentence in the English language with understanding of what they read. To prove this, the sentence printed on each of the literacy-test cards herewith given you, requires some act, or reply from the one examined.

"The one examined may read and write one or more languages other than English, but if he is unable to read understandingly the test sentences given him, he is to be marked "no" in this column.

"Select one card and hand it to the one examined for him to read *without aid*. Ask him to read it. If at the end of 30 seconds the one examined fails to respond correctly to the written question or command, offer another card for another trial for 30 seconds, if you think it advisable. *Take back the cards*. Do not use the same card more than once in any one home."

"Each of the following sentences will be printed on a separate card 3 x 2 inches. (Printed instructions are thought superfluous as distracting and unnecessary for one able to read the sentences.)

Where did you go to school?
In what country were you born?
About how old were you when you left school?
Are you married or single?
How long have you been living in this house?
What is the name of the street you live on?
How many fingers has your right hand?
Is it now morning, afternoon, evening or night?

What day of the week is today?
What month of the year is this?
What newspaper do you read?
Where do you work?
What kind of a job have you?
Where does the nearest doctor live?
Which do you like better, spring or fall?
Is it now winter or summer?
Are you an alien or a citizen?"

The report of the Nominating Committee was made by Mr. Rejall in the absence of the Chairman, Mr. Herlihy. It was as follows: President, Robert C. Deming; Vice-President, Wil Lou Gray; Secretary, Willie Lawson; Treasurer, Ethel Richardson.

"The report of the Nominating Committee was accepted and the secretary was instructed to cast one ballot for the election of the above officers. It was so voted and the officers declared elected."

In view of the fact that the Department of Adult Education is a national body and desires to cooperate with all agencies in the teaching of the adult, a motion was made and passed by this body that a Committee of three be appointed by the president to consider carefully the organization of this Department as it relates to all fields of adult education and to work out an articulate program by which this body may cooperate with all agencies interested in the education of the adult. The motion was amended to read, "Three, with power to add to their number as they see fit, and to use any necessary funds from the treasury of the Department of Adult education." Amendment passed. Motion carried.

The meeting adjourned at 6:10 P.M., June 29.

The report accepted from the Committee on Legislation was made by Mr. John W. Lewis, of Baltimore, and was as follows:

"Four laws relating to immigration and naturalization have passed both houses.

1. H. R. 3859 (Public Law No. 289) approved May 25, 1926 makes it possible to take out a Declaration of Intention during the 30 days before election. It further provides that Declarations of Intention already issued within such a 30-day period shall not be invalid on that account.

2. H. R. 9761—carrying text of H. R. 11208—(Public Law No. 294), approved May 26, 1926 extends the privileges of "soldiers naturalization" to veterans of the World War for a period of two years from date of passing of the Act. It also provides non-quota privileges for alien veterans of the World War (also their wives or husbands and unmarried children under 18 if accompanying or following within six months to join them.) The non-quota status applies only to aliens securing immigration visas within one year after the passage of the Act. It exempts the alien veteran also from some of the requirements of the Immigration Act of 1917.

3. S. 4251 passed the Senate on May 20 and the House on June 2, and by the time this is in print will probably be approved. It provides that the judge of any U. S. District Court may in his discretion designate one or more examiners or officers of the Bureau of Naturalization to take testimony, etc., on naturalization cases and report findings to the judge with recommendations. The judge may in his discretion and shall upon the demand of the petitioner, require the examination of the petitioner and the witnesses in court but in other cases it is not mandatory that they appear in open court.

4. H. R. 11204 (Public Law No. 296) exempts from provisions of Immigration Act of 1924 certain Spanish subjects residents of Porto Rico on April 11, 1899.

*BYLAWS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF ADULT EDUCATION
OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION*

ARTICLE I

Objects

The objects of the Department of Adult Education shall be:

I. To promote the establishment of classes and schools wherein all people above the compulsory school age may learn to speak, read and write the English language, and prepare to become intelligent, loyal, and law-abiding citizens of the United States.

II. To promote such attitudes and activities through the medium of the public school and other agencies as will most expeditiously and most thoroughly instruct all adults in the fundamentals of education, such as the reading, writing and speaking of English, geography, history, and civics and bring about unity of feeling and ideals among all the people of the United States, both native and foreign born.

III. To work for the adequate training of teachers, supervisors and directors to carry on this work.

IV. To urge the appointment of state directors of adult education in all states.

V. To facilitate every cooperation between the various states and the federal government, whereby the state departments of education and the departments of the federal government which deal particularly with the education and naturalization of adults, may each understand their respective functions and work in harmony and to one purpose.

VI. To encourage adequate financial support and effective direction, supervision, and instruction in this field in all states in which the need exists.

ARTICLE II

Members

Section I. Active members of the National Education Association who are engaged for full time or part time in the work of teaching, supervising, or administering adult education of students above the compulsory day school age in the use of the English language, in American history and government, or in preparation for naturalization, and all persons who are engaged in preparing persons to do this work, are entitled to become active members of the Department of Adult Education upon the payment of the annual fee of one dollar. Everyone who is interested in the education of the native or foreign born adult in the reading, writing, and speaking of English, geography, history, and civics, will be welcomed to all meetings of the department, but only active members may participate in the business of the department.

Section II. Members of the Department of Adult Education shall be entitled to receive a free copy of the proceedings when issued and will be

entitled to such other consideration as may be decided upon by the Department.

ARTICLE III

Officers

Section I. The officers of the Department of Adult Education shall consist of a President, a Vice-President, a Secretary, and a Treasurer. They shall be elected annually at the last formal session of the Department to serve for one year, or until their successors are duly elected. No one shall be eligible to any office in the Department who is not an active member of the National Education Association, and no person shall hold the same office in the Department for more than two years in succession. These four officers shall constitute the executive committee.

Section II. In case of the resignation or death of the President of the Department, the office shall be filled by the Vice-President. Any other vacancy in the Department shall be filled by appointment by the President of the Department.

Section III. The Treasurer shall, on the first of each month, send to the Secretary of the National Education Association the amount received for dues during the preceding month. This is to be credited to the Department of Adult Education and added to the amount allowed the Department by the National Education Association for expenses. This money can be expended only for the Department of Adult Education and under its direction.

Section IV. The Executive Committee shall hold a meeting immediately following the last session of the annual meeting of the Department.

ARTICLE IV

Election of Officers

Section I. A committee on nominations shall be appointed by the President of the Department and notified in writing of their appointment to such committees at least three months prior to the date of the meeting at which their report is to be submitted.

Section II. The Committee on Nominations shall consist of seven members of the Department who shall represent both the native and foreign born problem. At least three members shall reside east and three west of the Mississippi river and no two shall reside in the same state.

Section III. The Committee on Nominations shall report at the annual meeting in which they shall present to the Convention the name of at least one person for election to each of the four following offices: President, Vice-President, Secretary, and Treasurer. Additional nominations may be made from the floor.

Section IV. The election shall be by individual written ballot or by one ballot cast by the Secretary, as the members present shall decide.

ARTICLE V

Meetings and Sessions

Section I. The annual meeting of the Department shall be held at the same time and place as the annual meeting of the National Education Association. However, if not otherwise instructed at the annual meeting, the President may also arrange a meeting in connection with the Department of Superintendence if he thinks it advisable.

Section II. Two regular sessions with formal programs shall be held at the annual meeting.

Section III. In addition, an informal conference of state directors of adult education shall be held at the time of the annual convention, and the President of the Department is expected to make every effort to have a representative from every state in attendance at this conference. If a state does not have a state director of adult education, the President of the Department may invite some other public school official to attend from that state.

Section IV. At the annual convention, and at the mid-winter meeting if held, dinner discussions and exhibits may be arranged for, if the President of the Department thinks it advisable.

Section V. No paper, lecture, nor address shall be read before the Department in the absence of the author, without the unanimous approval of the members present.

ARTICLE VI

Program

The program of the Department shall be prepared by the President after consultation with the President of the National Education Association, and shall be arranged to conform with his ideas. The President of the Department shall also confer with the other officers of the Department.

ARTICLE VII

Committees

Section I. A Committee on Nominations shall be appointed as provided for in Article IV of these by-laws.

Section II. An Auditing Committee, to consist of three members of the Department, shall be appointed by the Department at the first session of the annual meeting, all nominations being made from the floor. No member of the Executive Committee shall be eligible for membership on the Auditing Committee. The Auditing Committee shall audit the books of the Treasurer and shall make a report to the Department.

Section III. A committee on Resolutions to consist of three members of the Department shall be appointed by the President at the first session of the annual meeting, and except by unanimous consent, all resolutions shall be referred to said committee without discussion. This committee

shall receive and consider all resolutions proposed by active members, or referred to it by the President. Immediately at the close of the first session, the Committee on Resolutions shall hold a meeting at a place to be announced by the President, for the purpose of receiving proposed resolutions and hearing those who may wish to advocate them. All resolutions shall be presented in written form.

Section IV. The President of the Department shall appoint all committees except when otherwise provided for by the bylaws or otherwise ordered by the Department.

Section V. No committee shall be continued beyond the time of the meeting at which it was to report unless so ordered by the Department.

ARTICLE VIII

Amendments

These bylaws may be amended at any annual meeting by a two thirds vote of those present and voting, provided a written notice of the proposed amendment or amendments has been presented to the members of the Department two weeks before such action is taken.

Department of Business Education

THE DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS EDUCATION was created in response to a petition read at the meeting at Saratoga Springs, N. Y., July 12, 1892, from the Business Educators' Association, requesting admission as a department of the National Education Association. See *Proceedings* 1892: 31. The Business Educators' Association was organized in New York City, in 1878. Its constitution was revised for acceptance by the Department of Business Education and may be found on page 958 of the *Proceedings* of 1894.

The officers of the Department for the year 1926-27 are: *President*, John G. Kirk, Director of Commercial Education, Philadelphia Public Schools, 17 and Pine Streets, Philadelphia, Pa.; *Vice-President*, E. G. Blackstone, Commercial Teacher Training, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa; *Secretary*, Elizabeth Baker, Teacher, Commercial High School, Atlanta, Ga. This Department meets once each year in June. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier *Proceedings* as follows:

1893:787-807	1900:542-582	1908: 871-907	1914:649-663	1920:263-271
1894:957-990	1901:721-758	1909: 701-719	1915:883-941	1921:369-377
1895:862-891	1902:644-702	1910: 833-873	1916:361-397	1922:575-591
1896:791-836	1903:719-753	1911: 827-869	1917:315-345	1923:553-568
1897:792-285	1904:709-737	1912:1031-1095	1918:235-249	1924:429-439
1898:856-893	1905:669-707	1913: 619-637	1919:259-271	1925:354-365
1899:998-1031	1907:877-905			

*ATTITUDE OF WORKER TOWARD INCREASING HIS
BODIES OF KNOWLEDGE AND IMPROVING
HIS SKILL—ABSTRACT*

R. H. LANDBURGH, SECRETARY OF LABOR AND INDUSTRY
HARRISBURG, PA.

EAGERNESS of the individual worker for his own development through further education has been increasing constantly through the last few years. This is true because time has allowed individual workers to see the results which have been achieved by others through additional education along the specific lines of their interests.

The increase in evening and correspondence education is sufficient to prove this. Evening instruction is not only carried on as a regular part of the public school system of cities of any considerable size, but it has now formed for some years a regular portion of the activities of many of the leading universities of the country. So important has this branch of education become that it is now carried on by many of our colleges, not only in the cities in which they are located, but through extension courses in other surrounding cities. Thus the University of Pennsylvania has for some years been conducting evening courses in Philadelphia, which enrol several thousand students yearly and in addition has been conducting extension schools in Scranton, Wilkes-Barre, Reading, Harrisburg, and Williamsport. Practically all of the students in those university evening and extension schools are workers whose eagerness to learn and to develop is constantly the subject of comment on the part of those who instruct in these schools. Time has shown that such evening school instruction not only better the opportunities for the individual in the business with which he may happen to be connected, but broadens his horizon and his field of opportunity elsewhere.

However, there are certain influences working to dampen the ardor of the worker to increase his knowledge. One occurs when an individual employer sponsors further education of a group of workers and then does not recognize their additional value to him resulting from such education. This makes for dissatisfaction in the individual, and tends to retard the progress of other workers who are told by those affected that additional specific education does not necessarily bring results. Therefore, educational programs, worked out in cooperation with individual employers must never be over-sold to the workers.

In commercial education the increase in the teaching of accountancy has led to some difficulties because sufficient accounting positions for those who qualify are not available. This has caused many trained men and women to remain on strictly bookkeeping work and to spend their additional efforts and their money without corresponding return. Of course, much of the reason for the influx into accounting training during the past ten years has been development of the new field of income tax accountancy. Hearing of the large fees paid in certain cases for expert advice on the income tax, many office workers have directed their attention to accountancy training

because of the field which they have felt to have existed in income tax work.

This problem of office workers has become acute in recent years through sudden increase in compensation to the skilled tradesman, whose increased wages have ordinarily not been the result of any educational work. The opportunities afforded to skilled tradesmen in this generation are such that an ever increasing amount of educational effort must be directed toward replacing, through our educational system, the old-time apprentice, who, because of present social and industrial conditions, has largely been eliminated from our social fabric.

Numerous plans are on foot in many cities to replace, through the education system, the skilled tradesman of the present for the skilled tradesman of the future. Of course, wherever feasible the whole educational effort of an individual youth should be directed early toward the trades, if that is to be his field. However, there will always be thousands of cases of young men who have felt that they desire the life of the white collar job, as it is usually called, who later find themselves unfitted to this type of work. Surely there must be educational means to provide for their desires. I feel that if such educational means were now generally available some of the surplus of office workers would be quickly made over into mechanics so badly needed by many of our industries.

The worker has been somewhat over-sold on the possibilities that are his or hers through education for executive and managerial positions. Too often we have attempted to make executives by teaching executive problems, when the workers being taught have not had the fundamental ground work or experience to either absorb the instruction or, if able to absorb the instruction theoretically, to place it into practice.

It is a general complaint of industry that a large percent of graduates of our universities are thinking only of executive positions. Executive is usually interpreted in this connection as meaning an absence of detail, the direction of others, flat top desk in one room, and an ante-chamber in which visitors may wait. Although the picture a college graduate has is doubtless frequently over-drawn, it is a fact that not only in our colleges but in all of our schools there has been recently too much attention paid to outlining the advantages that accrue in executive positions without calling to the attention of the students the fact that the number of such positions is necessarily limited and that equal opportunities probably exist elsewhere. The enthusiasm of the workers toward increasing his bodies of knowledge and skill should not be dampened by over-selling the opportunities of executive positions. Rather his or her enthusiasm should be stimulated in the directions in which real opportunity actually is to be found.

The attitude of the worker toward improving his skill combines an extreme eagerness to learn and to widen his abilities, with proper caution that he see the opportunity to reap financial benefits from his efforts.

Those who are giving the instruction should be careful to see that this instruction is of the character that will not only bring results to the individual but will encourage others to develop themselves.

THE SOCIAL RELATIONSHIPS OF WORKERS IN BUSINESS—ABRIDGED

R. HELEN STEVENSON, EMPLOYMENT SUPERVISOR, BELL TELEPHONE
COMPANY, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

The social relationships of workers in business are inextricably merged with the readily recognized business relationships, but they have not been given their real position of importance in their influence upon the business relationship until recent years, and the fact that a preparation, by training and study, for these relationships is of real and material value not only to the employer but to the employee is at last appreciated by all who have seriously considered the situation.

These social relationships in business are the contacts between the worker and employer, the worker with the co-worker and that of the whole organization as well as every worker unit in it with the public.

Goodwill so often valued and placed among business assets, is the monetary value of the social relationship of the business with the public.

And the social relationship of a business organization as a whole with the public is largely influenced and is dependent upon the social relationship of each individual in that organization, who reaches the public in a business way. So also do the social relationships within the organization, those between co-workers, and those between supervising authority and workers, affect not only the internal welfare of the organization but also its social relationship with the public.

It is manifestly impossible for a business organization to fulfil in full measure, its public business obligations, if its internal mechanism is corroded by a social relationship which is below par.

This social relationship in business is a state of internal business health and is good or bad as those attributes which make it apparent are present in greater or less degree.

These are confidence in those employed with one, confidence in ability—confidence in business honesty—confidence in the fellow employees desire to play fair.

But confidence is not all; that is the foundation and like all foundations is deep below the surface. But the manifestation of goodwill by one to another breeds kindness of thought and action, and this is true within a business organization and in the social relations of any business with the public, and nothing perhaps better exemplifies the confidence referred to than the ability at all times to conduct oneself with serenity and kindness of manner.

Why not start the child in school upon a course of study embracing good manners, business etiquette, general courtesy, as soon as he can understand the significance of every act and by the time the technical training is taken up the good manners will have become an established habit, a lifelong asset in business. And this training would be an asset to the employer, to the business organization, just as it would be to the worker.

The early training in business manners tends to establish a fixed habit of good business etiquette and when that training shall have become a usual precedent to the entry of the individual into business life, it will go far toward immunizing the business organization against any epidemic of bad manners, and will in itself automatically bring into existence a good social relationship between the individuals who have been so trained, and, through them, between the organization of which they are members and the public. The training of the individual advocated here is not the only means at our hands of establishing and improving the social relationship in business.

It must be remembered that business, as we look upon it, from the viewpoint of our various commercial organizations, cannot exist without the public, the community—they need commercial organizations and they are the cause of existence, the reason for continuance and the hope and means of success of the commercial enterprise, of which commercial business organizations are the operating machines.

It is, therefore, of the highest importance to the commercial organization that it establish and maintain a good social relationship with the public, and this social relationship must necessarily be one in business, for the contact of the commercial with the public is a business relationship.

This existence of this good social relationship depends primarily on confidence. We must have confidence as a foundation and for the bedrock upon which that confidence can be established and maintained there must be service—and then as the structure is raised we add good manners, the result of training either before or after the beginning of the business venture, willingness to play fair, desire to learn, and loyalty to the army in which one is enrolled and the good social relationship in business, in the case of the individual or the organization, is easily recognized. Where all these fundamental elements are present the result is a sure, certain, efficient, friendly cheerfulness, the cheerfulness of success. It is one of the rewards for merit of this good social relationship in business, and it and these deep rooted and firmly established virtues of business are the reasons why.

The voice with the smile wins!

ATTITUDES AND CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT IN BUSINESS—ABSTRACT

G. S. CHILDS, NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF OFFICE MANAGERS, AND OFFICE
MANAGER, ALEXANDER HAMILTON INSTITUTE, NEW YORK CITY

The subject of my talk necessarily divides itself into two considerations: Attitude which, to my mind, is your great responsibility and character development in business which is our task. The combined efforts of you and of us open the way to producing a living soul—a personality—rather than a more or less imperfect machine.

Let us forget appearances and concern ourselves with realities. We want people to amount to something, to have ideals, to add something vital to

the life of things around them. As a matter of fact, appearances are most discouraging. Realities are most inspiring.

It is true that in the real of realities, we seldom know what enthusiasm, interest, and effort on our part actually produce. As teachers you may feel that in many instances you are accomplishing little because the students do not seem to show any marked response to your efforts.

What business wants is to make money to be successful. But, this goal is reached only by service rendered and effectiveness in rendering it. You know from your own experience that there are certain stores where you dislike to deal because of the discourtesy and attitudes of the clerks. Considering the factors of competition, such establishments are seriously handicapped.

Let us consider your part in this great responsibility. There are certain basic moral qualities which the home and school influence must establish. I have in mind such principles as honesty, morality, and the development of the actual working attitude. Another important point in the establishment of attitude lies in what you do to bring about what might be called mental stimulation. There are many other important factors, including loyalty, enthusiasm, stick-to-it-iveness and that people shall have a purpose pragmatic enough to guide them. A person without any definite purpose is like a ship without a rudder.

Our side of the problem is character development in business. The conscientious business man must assume a real responsibility in the fact that the best part of the waking time of his people is spent in business. Failure on our part to give anything to our people aside from the pay envelope is certainly falling far short of our responsibilities, because our people are entitled to gain such guidance and help as will result in development of their character. It is beyond argument that, if a business wants to get something worthwhile from its people, it must maintain an attitude of helpfulness and interest that will result in bringing to the front the higher qualities of the individual. The success of a business is materially limited or eliminated by its failure to get its people to give something of their real selves to the business.

We do not know the possibilities of people that pass through our hands. Edison was an errand boy and Schwab a peddler. We have a privilege and a responsibility. Anyone would be thrilled to know that he had played a material part in the development of an Edison, a Schwab, or a Roosevelt, or a Lincoln.

COMMERCIAL EDUCATION FROM THE STANDPOINT OF THE DEPARTMENT STORE—ABSTRACT

W. PATTERSON ATKINSON, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

Too often products of business schools are really open to charges of fraud by reason of false pretenses. This is because they too often approach actual occupation with the thinnest veneer of knowledge.

Commercial education—what is it? It may not mean business administration or secretarial training or the old fashioned "business course," but from the standpoint of a department store, it may include all now taught in schools of business and more, or it should contain a great deal less.

We find in the curricula of business schools twenty or more subjects listed, for example: business English, bookkeeping, accounting, correspondence, arithmetic, salesmanship. Now a department store organization includes sections concerned with transportation, auditing, bookkeeping, accounting, selling, managing, inspecting, delivering, adjusting. So it looks as if the school opened a beautiful vista with a rose-strewn path down to the welcoming door of the department store.

But does instruction in any of these subjects help an individual in a department store? Yes, it is undoubtedly helpful in such things as stenography, typewriting, punctuation, grammar, spelling, simple arithmetic, penmanship. In others, such as accounting, business management, business forms, possibly—and that possibly is faint.

In still others, such as business correspondence, business English, and bookkeeping, the answer is "No." Can there be such a thing as business English? It sounds like a foreign language. Does it mean terminology? Can there be such a thing as business correspondence? Real offices in real department stores are, we trust, grammatically correct, civilized, and somewhat cultured. So a letter written from such an office should conform to correctness and the points of excellence found in all letters. Furthermore, that letter should be couched in the words, phrases, and sentences used by gentlemen everywhere. As for bookkeeping, the new mechanical system has practically done away with the old method.

And finally one great consideration must be considered as operative in many stores: that is the old system of apprenticeship. Many large organizations prefer to train their own people in their own way, provided they can do a little arithmetic correctly and not murder the king's English too cruelly, and make themselves understood by visible signs.

The conclusion of the whole matter is as the poet feelingly explained, a little learning is a dangerous thing, and we may add a smattering of much is worse.

THE PRINCIPLES OF COMMERCIAL EDUCATION ABSTRACT

PAUL S. LOMAX, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, NEW YORK UNIVERSITY
NEW YORK CITY

The number of students enrolled in commercial subjects represents one of the major groups in our secondary school population, and the same thing is becoming rapidly true of our colleges and universities. The commercial subjects that are offered these students have greatly increased in number and have become diversified in character.

This situation suggests an all-important question. What is the contribution that commercial education should make in the complete, well-rounded education of American youth who are to be equipped, as members of the business world, to render a business service that will result in best self-realization consistent with best social progress? This is a far more fundamental question than merely to determine what business men say they want or what surveys of business situations reveal to be true.

This major question in turn suggests the need of a set of guiding principles of commercial education that will square with best educational theory and practice. What are some of these principles that are needed to evaluate our present-day commercial education in common with all education? Here are two illustrations.

First, a philosophy of commercial education—If education is the deciding factor in the improvement of business as a social institution, what philosophy of life is to guide the business man and the commercial educator in their cooperative enterprise? To what ends and along what lines and with what methods would they seek to improve business through education?

Second, a unity of education embodied in the commercial curriculum—Every high school curriculum, commercial or otherwise, pursued by a student, should enable him to cope successfully with his personal physical life, family life, civic life, recreational life, character life, and vocational life. Leave out any one of these major elements and the child is crippled for life, for he has not had a unity of education to harmonize with the unity of life. Hence so-called academic and commercial education should become complementary to one another. They should be a unity in terms of the many-sided experience of life, each the richer, broader, and more educative because of the other.

Commercial educators will not be able to make their best contribution to American education in behalf of the social progress of business and of the great army of young men and women who annually enter the business world to endeavor to contribute to that progress, until such educators are guided by a philosophy, sociology, psychology, research, and leadership of the highest order.

RELATION OF COMMERCIAL EDUCATION TO THE PUBLIC'S ATTITUDE TOWARD BUSINESS ABSTRACT

HERBERT P. SHEETS, SECRETARY-TREASURER, NATIONAL RETAIL HARDWARE
ASSOCIATION, INDIANAPOLIS, IND.

For many generations most of the school texts have been filled with business examples presenting erroneous profit theories, and students have been taught that the difference between merchandise cost and selling price is profit or gross profit.

Because of such texts and such teaching the boy who in his first business venture bought a pig for \$1 and later sold the shoat for \$6, figured he had

made a profit of \$5, no thought being given to the cost of the feed consumed by the porker nor to the risk involved in its raising.

On the same theory merchants are often thought of as making enormous profits from their business when as a matter of fact operating and other costs involved in getting goods to the consumer are such that there is often no profit whatever on certain items.

It is an unfortunate circumstance also that many people go into business believing profits are large and easy, only to learn their error by experience, often when too late to save their investment; and if, perchance, they realize their mistake in time they must unlearn a lot of misinformation taught in the schools and get a new understanding of the problems, complexities, and compensation of business as found in actual practice.

The campaign for correct terminology has appealed to every thinking teacher who knows that the examples used in school work should be a reflection of the problems of real business rather than a repetition of the faulty concepts of the past.

Believing it to be in the public interest as well as the business interest to have correct profit terminology taught in our schools, the National Retail Hardware Association has made a thorough study of the arithmetic texts most commonly used for school purposes, and found that 96 of the 100 books studied contained 4560 business examples erroneously stated in respect to profit, percentages, and otherwise.

Each of these examples was rewritten so as to conform to modern terminology and reports were made to 26 publishers with the recommendation that such corrected terminology be adopted for future issues.

Some of these publishers have already issued new arithmetic series in which the recommendations have been followed, margin taking the place of gross profit and profit, where erroneously used, and profit being used only in its true sense of actual profit.

This has been counted as an outstanding accomplishment by educational authorities and business organizations, and as a marked step of progress towards the training of school children to think correctly in respect to business transactions. It is recognized that it profits the public little to think of and call profit that which is not profit, and that the public is not benefited by the high business mortality and resultant economic loss so often occasioned by the misinformation and unpreparedness of those who go into business.

COMMERCIAL EDUCATION IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL—ABSTRACT

JAMES M. GLASS, DIRECTOR OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, PENNSYLVANIA
STATE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, HARRISBURG, PA.

The junior high school is a clearinghouse where long-standing obligations to adapt secondary education to the social and vocational needs of modern society are being liquidated.

Each early adolescent pupil of the junior high school has an inherited right to be informed upon the common practices of the business world. A new general course of junior business training acquaints the pupils with accounts, bills, invoices, receipts, filing systems, budgets, banking, insurance, and the established customs of business with which everyday life is associated. Any plan of education which omits these actual life needs fails to discharge a long-standing debt to modern life and is, to this extent, incomplete.

A general introductory course of business education similar to the course in Junior Business Training should be adopted. The new course should be a logical progression from general educational values of business education made obligatory upon all pupils to the introductory vocational values of business and office practice made elective to pupils who enter the business world.

Business education in the junior high school is comprised of a required general course in one semester of the eighth year, followed by an elective general course of vocational commercial training and typewriting in the second semester of the eighth year, and completed in the ninth year by an advanced general course of unified elementary bookkeeping, business practice, and typewriting.

The junior high school initiates and the senior high school completes secondary education. Business education in the junior high school must be constituted on introductory courses which will lead naturally and gradually to the completion of the commercial curriculum of the senior high school.

THE NEED FOR SUPERVISION IN COMMERCIAL EDUCATION—ABSTRACT

EARL W. BARNHART, CHIEF, COMMERCIAL EDUCATION SERVICE, FEDERAL BOARD FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Experience has shown that supervision is as necessary in education as in productive industry. Employers of large numbers of workers have found that group production is increased by the activities of foremen, heads of departments, and other minor executives in guiding groups of workers towards the goal sought by the management. In the same way public school officials are finding out that the goal they seek is more nearly reached when through supervision teachers are given leadership in professional improvement and assistance and guidance in selecting objectives and methods.

If a group of teachers waste through misdirected effort, 10 percent of the school time, then 10 percent of the salary cost of the group is wasted. If a supervisor of several hundred commercial teachers, such as are found in a state or large city school system, can reduce this waste but half, he will save the taxpayers several times his own salary without counting the value of the increased efficiency from other outcomes of his work. The cost of supervision is thus apparent rather than real for the expenditure brings a

many-fold return. When those in charge of a large state or city school system wherein practically 40-50 percent of all the high school pupils are enrolled in commercial courses, do not provide professional leadership through expert supervision, they are apparently as indifferent to the waste of public money and of precious human opportunities as factory executives who employ no foreman.

The fundamental problems in commercial education center about what to teach the youth who are preparing for employment in offices and stores. Business men are quite emphatic in pointing out that our commercial courses are not teaching what is required for success in modern business offices. Thus, the National Retail Hardware Association, for instance, reports that they found in 100 textbooks over 4500 arithmetic problems which were not based upon a correct use of the word "*profit*." The waste of school time in this topic in arithmetic alone would seem to be somewhat more than 10 per cent to say nothing of the additional waste resulting from the erroneous ideas gained by the pupils. Similar waste in much of the instruction in all commercial subjects would seem to be preventable through supervision which brings into the classroom the practices and standards of business.

The ultimate purpose of supervision is commonly considered to be the improvement of teaching. As teaching has for its general objective certain desirable changes in the thinking and activities of those being taught, behind every judgment as to what constitutes good teaching lies an idea of the nature of the changes considered desirable. In those commercial subjects which are intended to give preparation for employment in offices and stores the desirable changes are those which contribute towards developing the knowledge, attitudes, and skills required for satisfactory service in office and store work. What abilities beginners in business need to have must be learned from a study of what beginners are required to do both for satisfactory service as beginners and for promotion within the first few years. One of the primary responsibilities of a supervisor, therefore, is to act as a leader in making these studies. When the information about occupational requirements is available, he then sees that the teachers make such changes in the content they teach and the method they use as will develop as far as possible the abilities found to be desirable. In this way the supervisor brings about more effective teaching, and increased efficiency in the work of the commercial teachers.

ARTICULATION IN THE TEACHING OF BOOKKEEPING AND ACCOUNTING—ABSTRACT

CONNER T. JONES, WEST PHILADELPHIA HIGH SCHOOL FOR GIRLS
PHILADELPHIA, PA.

Bookkeeping and accounting are very closely related subjects, one being more or less a continuation of the other. In fact, authorities disagree regarding the point of demarcation, and as one investigates the matter he is forced to the conclusion that no sharp line of distinction really exists but

rather that there is a twilight zone in which bookkeeping blends into accounting.

There are several lines of activity which the students of the secondary school may enter upon completion of their course. Some accept positions as bookkeepers, some enter more general lines of business occupations, while others attend the university schools of commerce. The secondary schools are faced with the task of acceptably preparing young people to fill any of these occupations.

The university schools of commerce are likewise asked to prepare students for widely varied work. On the one hand, some of the students find employment as technical accountants, while others enter fields in which a knowledge of accounting is used in an interpretative way.

One of the problems of the university is the unequal technical preparation of the students who ask to study accounting. Some may present up to three years of bookkeeping and are consequently well grounded. Others, graduates of the academic or general high school courses, lack even the simplest knowledge of bookkeeping. Some universities are meeting this condition by offering intensive courses in bookkeeping, often catalogued as "preparatory accounting," to students who cannot demonstrate the possession of a good working knowledge of bookkeeping.

Observation discloses that there is a wide variety in the scope, content, and quality of bookkeeping instruction in the secondary school. The same statement may be made regarding the instruction in accounting in the university, where too frequently the courses are shaped by the personal interest and limited knowledge of the instructors rather than upon the needs.

Employment surveys show that but a small percent of former commercial students are actually keeping books, but that they are rather scattered through all branches of business and industry. This condition clearly indicates that it is the obligation of the teachers in the secondary school commercial course and in the university school of commerce to prepare their students to become business men and women and not merely bookkeepers. Bookkeeping and accounting, however, form the most direct avenues to a knowledge of a business. The accountant in his capacity of fiscal historian of a business acquires a most intimate and comprehensive knowledge of the affairs of the business. And so I may well emphasize that after the statements and balance sheet have been prepared by the bookkeeper or accountant they should be used in interpreting the condition of the business.

It seems that at present the efforts of the secondary school and the university may best be coordinated if the secondary school will drill in accuracy until accuracy becomes a habit; offer sufficient routine drill to prepare students for bookkeeping positions, which are mostly routine in character; acquaint students with business technic and practice, thus preparing for the office and at the same time clearing the path for the more profound discussion of accounting principles in the university; and encourage those students with mental characteristics which make for success in accounting to continue their studies in university schools of business.

IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION IN SHORTHAND— ABSTRACT

JUVENILIA CASEMAN, BUFFALO, N. Y.

Since learning is reacting and is never a passive process, the reactions to which we give birth result in learning. Thus shorthand teaching should follow a procedure based on precise practice and presented in life situations. The procedure outlined is:

The pupil must be made to appreciate the need to learn the shorthand.

This need is presented in the form of a problem to write and read shorthand symbols.

The teacher sets the model of the shorthand outlines on the board.

Then the pupil imitates this model.

He evaluates and criticizes his own work.

Drill is given on the outlines to be mastered and the entire sentence is then practiced.

The teacher tests the pupil to show teaching results in the pupil learning.

The shorthand lesson is presented to the class following the above steps and each new consonant, vowel, or rule learned is given in the form of a sentence situation, however simple, and the need for the new skill is shown the pupil. The pupil is led to solve the problem by his knowledge of the shorthand symbols.

General and specific objectives have been set up for the teaching of shorthand. They are:

To acquaint students with stenographic requirements and with the opportunities in the stenographic, secretarial, and reporting fields.

To develop stenographic or secretarial power by an effective correlation of technical skill, with a knowledge of business procedure.

To develop in the pupils a thorough knowledge of the principles of shorthand and to build that degree of skill in the use of these principles which is essential in taking dictation and transcribing on the typewriter.

To inculcate in the pupils specific workmanship standards, attitudes, and appreciations to serve as standards of conduct in the use of specific shorthand knowledges and skills in business situations.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF RECENT STUDIES IN TYPEWRITING—ABSTRACT

CLYDE E. ROWE, HEAD OF THE COMMERCIAL DEPARTMENT, CARRICK HIGH SCHOOL, PITTSBURG, PA.

Hundreds of dollars and hours, to say nothing of mental energy and agony can eventually be saved by the further development of research in typewriting.

Research in this field is now in comparative infancy, but several recent studies based on psychology with analyses of time, motions, and copy point to a great increase in efficiency of instruction in typewriting. We can

scarcely expect to improve instruction in typewriting until we know more about the mental, muscular, and mechanical factors involved and their co-ordination. Every teacher may become a self-appointed research worker, and keep in touch with what is being done through magazines and universities. The time may then be not far distant when typewriting instruction and textbooks might become so efficient that typewriting could be learned in half the time and with half the present effort.

As commercial teachers, we must be practical, for our work is tested by no general academic standard, but by a practical one. The way to more practical instruction is through the gate of research.

TEACHING TRANSCRIPTION—ABSTRACT

ESTHER E. HANNA, WEST NEW YORK, N. J.

It should be the aim of every shorthand teacher to have pupils turn out perfect transcripts in the shortest possible time, rather than to teach a few shorthand principles, then transcription, then accuracy, and finally speed with accuracy.

Transcription is certainly more than the ability to read shorthand notes and the ability to type that which is read back. Of course these two abilities are absolutely essential; but so also are the abilities to estimate the length of the letter, arrange the letter in correct form, spell, divide words into syllables, punctuate, paragraph, supply an appropriate word when an outline has been omitted or is illegible, recognize quotations, etc. These abilities may all be inculcated in the mind of the student by much practice. In fact they should all become habits.

With the very first lesson the work of transcription should begin. First "mixed drills" should be used. By "mixed drills" I mean work written partly in longhand and partly in shorthand. Paragraph work as used in graded readings is far more effective than isolated sentences because it creates more interest.

It has been said, and rightly so, that if a student can write accurately and without hesitation the first thousand words he need not worry about the less frequently used words. As a part of the work in one of Mr. Barnhart's classes at Columbia University last summer a committee of three attempted to show how the shorthand teacher can correlate shorthand, typewriting, and business English. We used Thorndike's thousand word list and composed eight types of letters, each illustrating a different construction or arrangement of letter. We also attempted to show how one letter could be varied so that the same letter need never be used a second time.

Every letter which is transcribed should be arranged in correct business style as taught in the typewriting class, which by the way, should be taught by the same teacher.

Every transcript should be carefully checked either by the teacher in charge or by some student-checking plan.

METHODS AND VALUES IN THE TEACHING OF SALESMANSHIP—ABSTRACT

HELEN HAYNES, EMMERICH MANUAL TRAINING HIGH SCHOOL
INDIANAPOLIS, IND.

Too many students are finishing high school with no vocational aim and drifting into the first vacant position with no thought of their real fitness for the position or their opportunities for growth in it. One of the chief values of the course in retail selling, which is the most desirable course for a high school, is that it offers the student an opportunity to try out an occupation under the best possible conditions without loss of time. The student's program of studies is arranged so that it includes the required academic studies, a class in the theory of retail management and salesmanship, and time for practical work in a cooperating store.

As the store is cooperating with the school, the conditions for work are more favorable for the student than for the ordinary new worker. The classroom work in salesmanship enables the student to interpret his store experience and make the necessary adjustments. The follow-up of the student on the job makes the adjustment to the business world easier for the student. The stores are glad to cooperate, for many of the students enter their employ. Those who enter the permanent employ of the store do so because their experience has shown them it is the kind of work they really care for and not because it is an easy job.

The assisting of the salesmanship classes in the promotion of various school enterprises is also a very desirable adjunct. Planning devices that will make appeals to their fellow students, and organizing campaigns give invaluable training in clear thinking. Such experience obtained from influencing the thoughts and actions of people is as valuable as any other acquisition that an education gives.

SIGNIFICANCE OF RECENT RESEARCHES IN BOOKKEEPING—ABSTRACT

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CLEVELAND, OHIO

The Cleveland bookkeeping committee has just completed a piece of work which is indicative of what teachers might do and can do out in the field.

The following questions or problems came up before the bookkeeping committee for consideration:

1. Has bookkeeping a place in high school?
2. In what year or years of high school should it be taught?
3. What do you, as a banker, want the financial records of your customers to show?
4. What does the revenue department of federal and state governments want financial records to show?

5. What do you, as a business man, want your financial records to show?
6. What do you, as a public accountant or auditor, want financial records to show?
7. What do you, as an accountant, bookkeeper or bookkeeper's assistant, do?
8. What do you, as a citizen, or as an officer charged with the duty of enforcing the law, want financial records to show?
9. What traits of character do you, as a business man, want your bookkeeper to possess?
10. What historical or social information can be used to dignify the bookkeeper's job and assist in bringing about realization of these objectives?

The first two of these questions were answered in general by E. W. Barnhart in "Senior Commercial Occupations Survey." These same questions were answered specifically for Cleveland by Wm. L. Connor, research specialist, in his "Community Background for the Commercial Course."

The members of the Cleveland bookkeeping committee went into offices, factories, and stores in order to find the answers to the remaining eight questions. Graduates and former pupils of Cleveland schools, employees, employers, bookkeepers, accountants, and business men were interviewed and lists of duties made. These duties of the bookkeeper as the objectives of knowledges and skills together with traits of character important to the worker have been set up as objectives of the bookkeeping course.

Cleveland bookkeeping teachers, bookkeeping teachers from different parts of the country, accountants, commercial education specialists, and school executives have been asked to cooperate in helping to locate the elements of the course in their correct place in each semester.

These opinions are coming in and they are being used statistically. The result ought to be a course of study located in the proper place in the curriculum.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE LATEST RESEARCHES IN THE ORGANIZATION OF COMMERCIAL EDUCATION IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS—ABSTRACT

HAROLD B. BUCKLEY, SUPERVISOR OF COMMERCIAL EDUCATION, PUBLIC
SCHOOLS, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

That promotion is more a matter of individual ability and the quality of work done than it is of the kind of position held, is one of the most remarkable conclusions from a commercial occupations survey made in 28 cities, large and small, in 23 states, with Massachusetts on the east and California on the west.

A capable person may secure promotion by rendering superior service in any position, however, humble it may be. Good work always attracts attention. He who can do his job better than anyone else often demonstrates his ability to handle a better job. Therefore, it is of little consequence what the job is so long as the worker "shines" in it. The greatest danger is that boys and girls will be trained for bigger jobs than they can

handle and thus be unable to attract attention to themselves by superlatively good work.

The modern school realizes that success in life depends upon direct emphasis on the personal and social qualities quite as much as on educational facts. The educated person must not be taught the content of a certain number of books but must know how to live as well as how to earn his own living—in a democracy the ability to earn a living is essential to good citizenship. It is the personal qualities that are fundamental in any position:

Our personality—appearance, voice, and courtesy—"gets" the position.

Our character—habits of accuracy, neatness, and self-reliance—"holds" the position.

The development of our aptitudes—doing work we like—"wins" promotion.

Today, the only public school commercial training which most boys and girls receive is from the junior high school since most dropouts occur in the eighth and ninth grades. Of all who enter the ninth grade 53 percent go no further. Therefore, the junior high school gives training in pre-employment subjects, with emphasis on immediate placement and on promotional possibilities.

WHAT RESEARCH CAN DO FOR COMMERCIAL EDUCATION—ABSTRACT

E. G. BLACKSTONE, COMMERCIAL LEADER TRAINING DIVISION, STATE
UNIVERSITY OF IOWA, IOWA CITY, IOWA

If the business world is no longer run on the basis of prejudice and of opinion, the commercial teacher must likewise abandon that method of instructing his pupils and adopt a policy of measuring methods and results.

Hundreds of research studies have been made in the field of commercial education within the past few years, and the teacher who is unacquainted with their findings is far behind the times and may well be apprehensive of his right to assume the responsibilities of teaching.

Because of the many studies, some of which duplicate others, there is need for a central organization devoted to the control of research and to the establishment of a long-term program of research in commercial education, covering the establishment of experimental schools, the development of standardized tests for each business subject, and the like.

The experimental school at the State University of Iowa offers its facilities to further the movement for measurement and it is likely that other experimental schools will offer their facilities likewise in order that such a central organization may begin immediately the working out of its research program, even before the necessary funds and plans can be completed for the contemplated long-term program.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Regarding the session devoted to what business wants, it was believed that the representatives of business gave a most worthy and helpful analysis for commercial teachers. While the department felt more attention should be given to social relations, attitudes, and character development, it felt, also, that commercial teachers had perhaps made greater strides than other groups toward objectively determining content, organization, and methods, and that it would still be possible to accomplish more in commercial education than in other phases of education toward making contributions in the former.

It was believed that Mr. Glass had given a most excellent statement of the objectives of commercial education in the junior high schools and that all junior high school students should be required to take a general business information course which would contain the common elements of business. It was the consensus of opinion that Mr. Barnhart had properly stated the responsibility that rests on administrators in providing for adequate supervision of commercial education and that he had excellently stated the need for better trained commercial teachers to take supervisory positions.

In the absence of Mr. Edgeworth, Mr. Barnhart led the discussion on Thursday. Following this program devoted to research in commercial education, proposals were made regarding initiating a movement toward obtaining a fund for research in our field. In this connection C. W. D. Coffin stated that commercial education had done more for business than business had ever done for commercial education. It was pointed out that a large sum for research in commercial education would soon save many times the amount expended. Although the group were unanimously in favor of seeking the fund and believed that it should be made available, no action was taken. Mr. Malott, President of the Department, announced that he had gathered from all over the United States and in a few instances from Europe statements setting forth the need of research and experimental schools to attack problems characteristic of commercial education regardless of size of community concerned, and to attack problems of the content, organization and presentation in communities of different sizes and types. Because of the researches that have been carried on in Europe regarding commercial education, an international research committee in commercial education was proposed, but not acted upon. Mr. Malott, Specialist in Commercial Education, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C., announced that the Bureau of Education was organizing a committee on research in commercial education. The report on research, given by Mr. Blackstone, was accepted and it was believed that each of the speakers had made a contribution in estimating the significance of completed researches and in analyzing and setting forth the need of future studies regarding the subjects which they discussed.

Resolutions were unanimously passed regretting the absence of John J. Tigert, United States Commissioner of Education; thanking the President of the Department for his untiring efforts in arranging for the most excellent program and getting out the largest attendance that the Department had ever experienced; and extending the appreciation of the Department to the local committee, the chairman of the meetings, the speakers, and those who led the discussions for their excellent contributions to the success of the meetings.

Department of Classroom Teachers

THE DEPARTMENT OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS held its first session at the St. Paul meeting, July 8, 1914. It was organized in response to petitions representing classroom teachers in all parts of the country. See *Proceedings*, 1914; 909. The Department was reorganized under a new Constitution at the Boston meeting in July, 1922. For the Constitution and bylaws of this Department see *Proceedings*, 1924; 468-70. The Department of Classroom Teachers cooperates with the National League of Teachers' Associations.

The officers of the Department for the year 1926-27 are: *President*, Anna Thompson, Haddon Hall, 1315 Linwood St., Kansas City, Mo.; *Vice-President*, Mary B. Sullivan, State Normal Training School, Castleton, Vt.; *Secretary*, Clara Lynn, 3 Crockett Street, Seattle, Wash.; *Executive Committee*: Western Section, Jean L. Soules, Avalon Hotel, Spokane, Wash.; Eastern Section, Edith B. Joynes, 408 W. 14 St., Norfolk, Va.; Middle Section, Eula F. Hunter, 1324 E. Morphy St., Fort Worth, Texas. This Department meets once each year, in June. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier *Proceedings* as follows:

1914: 909-916	1917: 615-622	1920: 343-355	1922: 683-691	1924: 460-499
1915: 1161-1177	1918: 381-389	1921: 399-406	1923: 569-620	1925: 365-402
1916: 637-652	1919: 375-392			

HOW THE CLASSROOM TEACHER IS MEETING THE NEEDS OF THE CHILD THROUGH TEACHER PREPARATION

JOSEPH ROSIER, PRESIDENT, STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, FAIRMONT, W. VA.

THE CLASSROOM TEACHERS of the country are qualifying themselves for greater service to the children by raising the standard of preparation for teaching. In no department of educational activity has there been greater advancement in recent years than in the movement for a better status of teaching. Teachers have developed professional attitudes toward their vocation and there is a deep realization of the value and importance of the teaching work. Taking all the persons engaged in the work of teaching, throughout the country there is still a great lack of professional training. In the more highly trained groups, the training of teachers will compare favorably with that which is required of those who enter the other professions. Entrance into the lower grades of teaching is still easy and in the most of the states of the union there are large groups of teachers who have not more than a high school education, and quite a percentage of this group have entered the ranks of teachers through examination and possess little training above the elementary schools. In the last twenty years approximate standards of teacher preparation have been formulated and there is a general and willing disposition among the greater majority of the teachers of the country to meet these standards. Most of the states are now fixing the completion of a four-year college course with special subjects in education as the minimum for high school teaching, and two years of special training beyond the four-year high school course has been fixed as the minimum of preparation for elementary teachers. It is true that many of the elementary teachers have not reached this minimum standard, and this is particularly true in the rural sections. To the credit of the great body of classroom teachers throughout the country it may be said that they have responded in good spirit to the demands for higher standards. Thousands of teachers who fall short of the modern requirements are found enrolled each vacation at the summer sessions of the universities and teachers colleges. These thousands are striving not only to meet the mechanical standards which have been set up, but they are earnestly seeking to qualify themselves for greater service to the children of the nation.

Out of this awakening among teachers has come a high professional spirit and a deep sense of obligation to their work, and the willing response to these modern demands is leading to the establishment by law and official regulation high minimum standards for entrance to the profession in all of the states. The best evidence of the professional growth among the large body of our teachers is found in their attitude towards the movement for higher standards for entrance to the teaching profession. Admission to teaching work is coming to be based upon the completion of

certain prescribed courses of academic and professional training, and few teachers are being admitted by examination, which was the prevailing plan a quarter of a century ago. While it probably remains true that a large proportion of the elementary teachers are satisfied to meet the minimum requirements effective in their states or communities, there is a constantly increasing number who are willing to go in advance of the standards. Teachers everywhere are realizing the fact that they cannot be professionally prepared in their work unless they have taken courses in instruction in the institutions opened and maintained for their training. I put down as the most remarkable thing in the educational work of our time, that these thousands of classroom teachers are responding to the demands that are being made upon them in their earnest endeavors to prepare themselves, not only for the formal standards which have been set up, but for the greater service which they can render.

The teachers of the country are responding to the demands made upon them by the recognition and promotion of competent and efficient service. These teachers are respecting the obligations which rest upon them, to give value received for the compensation that they receive just the same as the members of other professions. Just as an incompetent dentist or lawyer fails in his work, just so teachers realize that incompetence and inefficiency will lead them to ultimate failure. The fact that teachers are developing more professional attitudes and that they recognize the justice of the demand for careful and honest preparation, shows that they regard teaching as a serious business that ought not to be undertaken by those who have not made some real preparation for it.

There is also a distinct realization among teachers of those personal qualities that are essential to success in their work. There has been a noticeable improvement in the personality of the large body of classroom teachers in this country in the past twenty years. By travel and study these teachers have come in contact with the culture and refinements of their age. Thousands have attended our great state and national meetings and have eagerly thronged our universities and colleges during their summer vacations, and other thousands have toured their own and foreign countries with notebooks in hand, and have carried back to their classrooms a spirit and an outlook that have transformed the schoolroom of a generation ago. No more interesting studies have been made in the development of the profession than in those lists of abstract personal qualities which combine to make up the personality of the teacher. The qualities of charm, tact, earnestness, loyalty, poise, zeal, and the many things that have been put down as desirable qualities for social leadership have been seriously pondered by our teachers. It may be that in listing these desirable characteristics impossible ideals have been set up, and that teachers who fail to reach these unattainable standards are unfairly regarded as failures. With the building up of ideal professional attainments many of those employed have too often been found to have a woful lack of these qualities in the classroom. We must not lose sight of the

fact in our study of the ideal teacher that the men and women who enter the work of teaching are the common possessors of the various human weaknesses. Teachers have made great personal improvement from their studies of teacher qualifications and job-analysis. In response to the demands made upon them the classroom teachers of the country recognize the importance of physical soundness and health, value more the importance of which for want of a better term, we call personal appearance, the necessity for general mental ability, and the ability to meet the moral and spiritual obligations so necessary in influencing the character of the young. Modern teachers are departing from the old tradition which held that the teacher should know a little more than his pupils, to the modern theory that the teacher, whatever grade is taught, must have not only great knowledge, but a richer and broader life than his pupils have yet had. Back of this thought is found the justification for the advanced standards of scholarship and training that are being fixed everywhere for teachers. Out of this awakening to the necessity of greater professional and academic preparation and the importance of finer human qualities and virtues has come a more scholarly attitude among teachers. The teachers of this country are coming to have the spirit and attitude of the scientist who sincerely wants to know something about the causes and the results of his work. Teachers are more competent leaders of the young today than they were in the past, because they have the spirit of real scholarship and they are guiding their pupils into those paths which they have traveled and in which they have experienced joy and satisfaction.

The teachers of the country are responding to the needs of the children by a wise and helpful participation in all programs of educational development. In a former generation there was a tendency to exalt the position and the authority of administrative officers of education, and to regard the classroom teacher as a subordinate or inferior person, whose only duty was to carry out the orders issued by those higher up. In that old system individual initiative among teachers was at a discount. Teachers were not supposed to have any thoughts pertaining to the general problems of the schools in which they taught. The organization of the school, the outline of the course of study, and the methods of instruction as well as the disciplinary problems were all attended to in the office of the principal or the superintendent. The school systems which were organized and carried out by this plan often presented outward appearances of great efficiency and order.

In the more modern school system, there has been a greater tendency to regard the relation of the teacher to the pupil as the most vital thing in the school system, and in the acceptance of this theory to consider the individual teacher as the most important factor in the school system. Those methods of organization which in times gone by so completely occupied the minds of the school administration have become insignificant in contrast with the classroom where a teacher established a vital contact with a child. Those who accept the relation of the teacher and pupil

as the basic and fundamental thing on which our educational administrative machinery must be based very soon recognize that no great system of education can be developed which does not call upon the individual teacher for participation in the theory as well as the practice of teaching. In all the progressive school systems of the country today, teachers are responding to the call for participation in investigation and study of the various problems arising in their school systems. The classroom teacher with her enlarged vision and her high standard of training should be and is able to make valuable contributions to the selection and organization of the subject-matter of instruction, the development and the test of methods of instruction, and to observe and formulate disciplinary measures for the guidance and the correction of his pupils in habit formation. In the days of poor preparation the classroom teacher as Doctor Bagley has said, was forced to look upon his work as a mechanical trade, instead of as a fine art, and instead of being the artist that he should have been he was forced more and more insistently into the position of the artisan.

We have come to realize that success in the work of education must depend upon having an artist in the classroom. To have artists of great skill in the classroom we must have recognition of actual teaching success. Those who have demonstrated great efficiency in the classroom should be expected and should be willing to participate in all of those movements designed for educational betterment. We are happily on the way from that day of school administration when supervisors or superintendents sought to transfer to themselves the success and the skill of individual teachers who served under their direction. The competent superintendent and administrator of this day magnifies the success of individual classroom teachers and invites these teachers to make contributions to the development of general educational programs. Quoting Dr. Bagley again, "Until in the work of education we can insure that the teacher can profitably capitalize his success and still remain in first hand contact with the material of his art, teaching will remain the sorriest of trades." The majority of teachers in this country are no longer untrained and ignorant school keepers, but trained and professional experts who know better what to do in carrying out the details of their work than the so-called "administrative experts" who assume to direct them. In my judgment we have come to the time in the development of education when the "superior" in any school system or educational institution is the individual teacher who has the greatest mastery of skill in teaching. In my own school system I take off my hat to the great successful teachers who are content to be in the classroom to inspire and instruct young growing minds. If the teachers of our country are to have the place of influence which is rightfully theirs they must not only respond to the modern demands for high standards of professional training, but they must take an active part in all movements of educational progress. We can only have a great teaching profession as we recognize the dignity and the preeminence of great and inspiring classroom teaching. Schools

are maintained and taxes are paid in order that children may learn and learning takes place chiefly in the classroom where teacher and pupils come in intimate contact. For this reason our modern school system will bring about a proper adjustment between the idea of the individual teacher as the greatest factor in education, and of the administrative organization which is concerned with the business and administrative problems. With these elements in mind administrations and teachers should both be moved by the best interests of the child and those interests should be paramount to all others. The classroom teachers of our country can render a great service to education by wider participation in all general educational activities.

The needs of the child may be met by a spirit of cooperation. While I magnify the success of the great individual teacher, I would have that teacher realize his obligation for cooperation with his colleagues and with those who have the authority to organize and administer. There is no place in any modern school system for mere dictation by those in authority. The spirit of cooperation among the great body of teachers should be so willing and so loyal that no occasion for the exercise of authority should arise in the work of education. There can be no real efficiency where the relationship of cooperation does not exist. Cooperation means working in harmony and loyalty. This condition can not exist where one group dictates and the other merely follows direction. There must be a spirit of democracy among all members of the teaching profession, both those who develop skill in the classroom and those who make their contribution through business and administrative organization.

Classroom teachers must cultivate the spirit of cooperation on account of the vital principles involved. Being desirous of growth and development, teachers recognize the psychology of self-activity as a condition of mental growth. Just as self-expression and initiative are essential to the growth of children, so they are vital in the professional growth of teachers. School administrators must be big enough to recognize their own limitations and to supply to their school systems through the cooperation of their teachers the things which they themselves cannot provide. They must make themselves more capable and inspiring leaders than do those who fear mutual effort will result in a loss of prestige. Teacher preparation either among the young people enrolled in our teacher training institutions or among those striving for professional advancement in the service will be inadequate if it does not provide ample opportunity for the exercise of initiative and the development of power of judgment and the appreciation of relative values. Such development can only come in a large measure of cooperation. In modern education recognition must be given to expert teaching and expert teachers must be encouraged to continue their work. Successful teachers must have larger compensation and more professional recognition. They must turn their backs on the temptation to seek so-called high positions of administration where they may be failures. Modern school administration for these reasons is

placing more and more responsibility upon the individual teacher and more and more classroom teachers are expected to cooperate in the shaping of educational policies and in carrying the responsibility of general educational development. The classroom teachers will not only increase their professional power and influence, but they will be of greater service to the children of the country by showing a fine spirit of cooperation in all worthy educational movements.

Teachers are meeting the needs of the children through a more clear understanding of the relationship between the teacher and the child. The early conceptions of school discipline were negative and restrictive. The child was chained to the schoolroom desk and his chief duty was to learn from the teacher and from books in which tasks were assigned by the teacher. The model pupil of the old day was the one who was absolutely obedient to the teacher and one who was not expected to question the authority of the teacher or the accuracy of his textbook. Perhaps in no social realm in the past was the principle of autocracy practiced with greater consistency than in the schoolroom. The development of modern science has changed all of this and there has come now the questioning attitude and the spirit of investigation and experiment. This modern spirit has revolutionized procedures and we have come into the period of pupil freedom and inquiry. Guided by this spirit modern school discipline is suggestive and constructive and is based upon the self-control and self-direction of the child. The teacher no longer is expected to tell the child mere facts, but is rather required to aid the child in the use of his own powers and the developing of judgments so that he can make the right use of his own activities. The skilled classroom teacher of today must not only have a fund of knowledge to tell his pupils, but he must have a wide range of information about child contacts with subject-matter so that he may intelligently guide his pupils through the mass of facts and the record of human activities that surround him on every side. With the development of the modern sciences of psychology, and sociology the teacher who takes charge of a class in a classroom now must face many complex problems which the teacher of two or three generations ago knew nothing about. Each individual child will be a problem for study. In each case there will be the responsibility for guidance and inspiration. Enlightened by modern psychology the teacher finds that the most educative processes are the experiences which the child has from day to day. He finds that the child's education is proceeding not only in the classroom, but outside the classroom. We have learned that our experiences are educational and that the child is constantly learning. This new knowledge of childhood throws a great responsibility upon the classroom teacher. The classroom teacher today must meet the demands of the child by a greater effort to understand and appreciate his point of view. We have learned from one of our great teachers that the greatest quality of a good teacher is vicariousness and that all real teachers strive to reach

that point in the growth of children when their support and direction will not be needed. Primary teachers must learn how to enter into child life. Trained teachers of today cannot deceive children by mere pretense of participation in the spirit and life of childhood. The great classroom teacher must first of all respond to the needs of the child for understanding, sympathy, and guidance. Fortunately age has but very little to do with the understanding and the enjoyment of boys and girls in school. Teachers of sixty years of age may be able to enter more fully into the spirit and heart life of young people in school than some much younger. The modern teacher with a knowledge of psychology and child life occupies a far more important place than he did in the old mechanical conception of the teacher as *in loco parentis*. The inspiration, guidance, and the influence of the classroom teachers of this country are the most potent influences in the lives of our children. They must be the guiding spirit of the children in all their pupil and student activities, conduct them through the course of study and the complicated environment that surrounds them, into the broad fields of knowledge found in books and libraries, but beyond all of this, teachers, great classroom teachers must meet the needs of the child in helpful suggestions and in sympathy and love. Now abideth all of these many professional services which the better trained teachers must render to the childhood of our nation, but the greatest of these is that of the devotion and consecration to the child which can come only from the heart warmed with the spirit of the great teacher.

CHARACTER EDUCATION

MILTON FAIRCHILD, PRESIDENT, CHARACTER EDUCATION INSTITUTION
WASHINGTON, D. C.

I bring you a challenge, that 1000 classroom teachers participate in a character education research. The development of scientific educational research is impossible without cooperation from the classroom teachers, because the classroom teachers have personal contact with the children, and from personal observation can know, in an adequate way, what the results are from the use of any particular method of teaching. Achievement tests are merely an aid to good judgment in education based on intimate acquaintance with children. We must develop the powers of observation of the classroom teachers. There can be no permanent place for what can properly be described as the handy-man or Jack of all researches in education, one who undertakes to function as the deciding research specialist as to methods of instruction and training in all subjects, but is master in none. It is basic in scientific research that leadership shall lie with a thoroughly trained specialist in the subject of the research. There is no Jack of all researches in the natural sciences, no one who undertakes to discover and verify new generalizations in chemistry, in physics, in astronomy, in agriculture, promiscuously according as the demand

may arise in any one of these fields. No specialist can be reliable in decisions as to methods of instruction and training in history, geography, mathematics, art and health, promiscuously, on the basis of objective tests and statistics. The leader in a research as to methods in history must be an historian and also a specialist in history teaching of children; the leader in a research as to methods in mathematics must be a mathematician and a mathematics teacher of children; *et cetera*.

Classroom methods must not merely achieve good results when used by exceptional research teachers, but they must be effective when in use by the mass of teachers. The introduction of scientific research into education increases very greatly the importance of classroom teachers as collaborators verifying the theories of the scientific educationists.

There are three grand objectives for general education: (1) the transmission of knowledge; (2) the development of abilities, skills, and health; (3) the maturing of character. It would be foolish for each generation of children to strive to discover for itself the vast and rapidly accumulating body of knowledge which humanity now possesses. About 50 percent of the teachers' energy better be expended on the task of transmitting to the children those portions of this accumulated knowledge which are of superior utility and value.

Logic is the science of thinking, and "good thinking" is the basis of successful living. Decisions in business and home and public affairs must be made wisely by the individual through the use of brain power in accordance with the laws of trustworthy thought. The ability to do good thinking must be educated. In the manufacturing arts an astonishing degree of skill has been achieved in these recent centuries of human civilization. This skill must be transmitted, the children have to be taught the discoveries in skill of past generations.

The possession of knowledge, the ability to do good thinking, physical power to carry out skilfully the processes of the manufacturing arts depend upon good health. Education must concern itself with the development of health. If the classroom teacher devotes 50 per cent of teaching energy to the transmission of knowledge, he or she will need to use at least 25 percent of teaching energy in developing abilities, skills, and health.

But knowledge, abilities, skills, and health when used with evil purpose produce evil—injustice, grief, suffering. Civilization has developed standards of human character, and conformity to these standards is a guarantee of successful cooperation in national life, in home and social relations. These personal character standards which civilization has developed must be made part of the human after-birth inheritance of the children generation after generation. The remaining 25 percent of the classroom teacher's energy should be devoted to maturing character.

The Character Education Institution, of which I am chairman, is devoted to special scientific research in the field of character education. It has \$15,000 a year for this research work; it is seeking a maintenance fund of \$300,000 and an independent endowment of \$1,000,000. The

control of the Institution, according to its charter, lies in its membership, which is restricted to those persons who hold officially positions as state commissioners of education or state superintendents of education, the federal commissioner of education, the superintendent of schools of the capital of the nation, the secretary of the National Education Association, the secretary of the National Council of Parents and Teachers, the dean of the school of education of George Washington University, District of Columbia, some research specialist chosen from the staff of the Smithsonian Institution, and the chairman of the Character Education Institution. One additional membership is given to the Bureau of Education and another to the public schools of the national capital. Each state in the Nation has its opportunity to participate through its state department of education in the control of this research work. Any person in any state in any educational institution in any school system, city, town or county, who is able to do particularly good thinking in character education is, according to the ideal of the Character Education Institution, a participating collaborator in its research work.

The institution is non-commercial. It is to take out no copyrights, to charge no lecture fees, to have nothing for sale.

The Character Education Institution is in official collaboration with the Ministry of Education of France and with the Department of Public Instruction of Mexico, and with other nations as opportunities arise, in order that by exchange of research results character education in the United States of America may have the benefit of such wisdom as may be accumulated by the other nations of the world.

I accepted with keen appreciation the invitation of President Sullivan and the executive committee to take part in this program, because I want to explain our appeal for cooperation in character education research.

In 1916 a prize of \$5000 was offered by a big-hearted man, whom we call the Donor, for the best children's morality code. The competition resulted in the "Hutchins Children's Morality Code." About \$25,000 of effort has been expended, in addition to the award, in the verification of this children's morality code. It is available now for the schools of the nation as a revised and verified code interpreting intelligent public opinion as to what moral ideas ought to be inculcated in the minds and hearts of the children. In 1917 the same big-hearted donor offered an award of \$20,000 for the best method of character education in public schools. The various states in the nation were organized for this research, there being nine collaborators in each state. The result was the Iowa Plan for Character Education, Edwin D. Starbuck, of Iowa University, being chairman of the collaborators who won the award. This "Iowa Plan" is a basic university discussion of the principles which are essential to successful character education. Twenty-five other plans, many of them containing very important material, were received as a result of this \$20,000 award. The research work of the Character Education Institution is now concentrated upon the utilization of all the good advice

received in all these plans, the accumulation of good advice from individual educationists, especially classroom teachers, and also from other nations, in order that all this good advice may be utilized in the formulation of the simplest possible plan for character education in elementary schools which will prove effective in the lives of the children—in their daily conduct, habits, emotions, and purposes.

This composite plan, called "The Five Point Plan," has been very carefully formulated, and has been used during the past two years, to a limited extent, in classroom experimentation. The research purpose of the Institution for the coming year is to secure voluntary collaboration from 1000 classroom teachers, some of them being in each state in the nation, and by means of these collaborating classroom teachers secure a verification of this Five Point Plan as effective, or as having serious weaknesses to be eliminated by further revision.

What are the basic elements of the Five Point Plan?

The first point—classroom organization—(moral leadership) 20 percent emphasis. The children are social as well as individual in their moral life. Among the thirty or forty pupils of the class there are always some eight or ten who are naturally moral leaders among their children friends. They do not like brutality, they do not like lying, stealing, cheating, they do not like brag and conceit, hatred, spite, envy; they are generous-hearted, fair-minded, lovers of their fellow beings. The classroom teacher can get strong support for leadership over the moral life of the classroom children through some organization which will use these moral leaders as officials. It is, therefore, proposed in the Five Point Plan that there be a classroom club which shall organize the life of the class in its efforts to succeed in achievements which are worthy of the best powers and the finest purposes of the children.

The second point—the children's morality code—(wisdom) 10 percent emphasis. Of course, there has to be something in the character education plan which will bring to the children the wisdom of the human experience had in past generations. Civilization consists not merely of accumulated knowledge and skills, but also in accumulated standards of personal conduct and character. It is unwise to be a liar; it is unwise to be a cheat; it is unwise to be quarrelsome; it is unwise to be jealous, to be lazy, to be thriftless, to be an ingrate. The children's morality code can be presented to the classroom organization as an expression of what the citizens of Uncle Sam think is right day by day for the children of the nation. Ten percent of the energy which the teacher devotes to character education better be devoted to instruction in morals.

The third point—character projects—(habits) 30 percent emphasis. When by discussion at a meeting of the classroom club and by enthusiastic explanation of some great ideal set forth in the children's morality code, the spirit of the class has become enthusiastic in favor of doing something real as an expression of loyalty to the ideal which they have been studying, then has arrived the time to begin and carry through a character project.

Out of the experiences of character projects the children will establish habits. If respect for the aged has been recognized intellectually as right for boys and girls, it needs to be recognized in life and habits also. Hats can be doffed, kindness to old people can be actually done as opportunities arise. A basket of fruit can be sent as a present in charge of a club committee to some aged person who is designated as a friend of the club.

It is only right and fair that children at home should do their share of the home work. Each child can choose for itself a few home chores which it will do well and willingly. Records of success and failure can be made and "approvals" and "disapprovals" can be distributed as expressions of the club sentiment. The cooperation which the children ought to extend to their teacher in the conduct of the affairs of the classroom can be distributed as the work of class committees.

Since it is in the doing of these worthwhile things that the children will form good habits and mature character in support of these habits, therefore considerable stress in our Five Point Plan must be put upon character projects. At least 30 percent of the energy which the teacher gives to character education should be devoted to character projects.

The fourth point—character motives and personal influence—(guidance) 30 percent emphasis. The personal influence of the teacher for good over the children of his class must be the potent factor in any plan for character education, because it is through the teacher's personality that the children get an interpretation of true moral standards. Moral standards and motives are catching, and the children need a chance to catch them from someone who has them as radiating influences. Intimate personal acquaintance on the part of the teacher with the children whom he is serving as teacher must be the basis for tactful, skilful, and influential personal influence. Ambition for them, personal sympathy, loyal friendship for them individually, make the teacher of vital influence. But the important factor in successful personal influence is intelligent argumentation as to what is right and what is wrong in the conduct situations which develop for the children. Arbitrary insistence upon obedience is of course necessary as a last resort, but obedience to the right as an expression of one's own personal choice in response to a convincing argument as to what is right brings to the child the personal experience which counts most in its growth into self-control. This personal influence of the teacher will permeate all classroom work and will have its expression through the classroom club, the study of the morality code and the carrying out of character projects. We shall need to assign, therefore, specifically 30 percent of the teacher's energy expended in character education to this fourth point, and this will cover the energy required by those intense moments of struggle between the teacher and the child when wilfulness on the part of the child is overcome and loyalty to the right established through the argument and the personal appeal of the teacher.

The fifth point—character charts and school records, with 10 percent emphasis. The teacher cannot do intelligent character education work

unless information can be had as to the character strength and the character weaknesses of the child. The life of the child is largely spontaneous. It is not dominantly a bundle of reactions to the stimulation of its environment, but it is a network of expressions of inner "urges." The organs of the body, particularly the brain, have inherited "instincts" and there is a group of brain "curiosities," but the big dominant factor in human life is the "personality urges." There are at least twelve of these great "urges." Sometimes in a child's soul these "urges" are in good harmony, but sometimes they are out of harmony. Individual character charts that show the strength and weakness of these "urges" are necessary. And there are fifteen great areas of personal conduct in which character expresses itself. The character charts must show each child's state of growth in character.

The school must keep these character charts as records of the character development of the individual child and 10 percent of energy in our character education plan will have to be assigned to character charts and school records.

Genetics is one of the background sciences for education. To some geneticists the laws of heredity have seemed to prescribe inevitably the development of an adult personality predetermined by the hereditary factors. But as the science of genetics progresses the inadequacies of this determinism in heredity has been established. Each human person inherits a capacity to be several different kinds of adult personality. Inheritance from parents is only one of the determining factors in adult personality. The other influential factor is environment. The educational environment of the school may stimulate into growth various capacities in adult character which otherwise would have remained dormant. If these school educative influences can be well organized with influences for good in the home and the church, there will be very few children who will turn out badly. The problem of character education is to succeed in discovering ways and means and methods by which the inherited capacities of each and every child shall be stimulated and guided to development into adult character worthy of citizenship in our nation and of participation in our human civilization.

IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION

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The word "instruct" comes from the Latin *in*, meaning "in" or "on," and *struere*, meaning "to build or form," and in its original meaning designated the work of the teacher in building into or forming the mind and character of the child. The word "instruction," therefore, carries a noble implication as to the work of the teacher.

Those familiar with teaching in the public schools are generally agreed that the level of instruction has tremendously improved during the past generation or two. However, it is a perpetual problem for the reason

that the average life of the teacher is little more than three years, which means that nearly one third of the total teaching force is new each year. In the absence of adequate requirements for training, including preliminary teaching under competent critics, there exists even today all levels or grades of instruction. One can now occasionally find a teacher who merely holds the book on the child, expecting word for word reproduction of the text regardless of any comprehension of the meaning. I well remember my own early experience as a teacher in a country school. Apparently I followed a teacher whose criterion was the ability of the child to say the words of the book. One day after a fifteen-year-old girl had recited unusually well upon the discovery of Florida by Ponce de Leon, it occurred to me that she was using the words of the book very closely and might not know their meaning, so I asked her some such provoking questions as: "Point in the direction of Florida." It immediately became evident that the words which she had just repeated so glibly were entirely devoid of meaning. I can now see that I may have been partly to blame in following the course of study and assigning a lesson of this type.

Others keep the book as the center, but try to get meaning into it. Still others rise above the book to the subject, and from various sources try to get an understanding of the subject. Frequently in such instruction, the teacher's range is more or less the limit, and the teacher thus becomes the center of instruction. At the present time, the better teachers are trying to make the child, his interests and problems, the real center of the school work. This means no neglect of subject-matter, but it means that all subject-matter handled has meaning behind it, and that it is connected up with the child's experience and previous thinking in such a way that it has meaning at the time and the high probability of more permanent retention for later use.

When it comes to the actual work of raising a teacher from book level to the level where the child is actively thinking forward under the direction of the teacher in terms of his own interests and problems, we have one of the most worthwhile, as well as one of the most difficult problems, confronting the teaching profession. There is no one road. There are many, many roads. Some teachers are keen enough to learn by trial and error, sensing their mistakes and correcting them as they go. The number, however, who in such conditions simply wear into a rut of inefficiency is too great to recommend this as the preferred procedure.

The study of the principles and methods of teaching gives a basis for criticism, and if accompanied by opportunities for observation and practice, is very likely to function to a considerable extent. Even so, it is most desirable that the beginning teacher have the help of a competent supervisor who will observe and sympathetically criticize, thus enabling the teacher to realize on the job the principles and methods which he has studied in the normal school or university.

In my own experience as a supervisor, I believe I had most success in securing rapid improvement of teachers by sending or taking teachers to

visit successful teachers. When such visitation was carefully managed, being arranged after the teacher had become conscious of some need, and then directed to teachers who were doing in a superior way the things on which the visiting teacher was failing, the resulting improvement was frequently quite surprising. I recall a primary teacher who had gained the idea in training that first grade children were not to be restrained. In carrying out this idea, she had constant confusion, and her results at the end of the year were unsatisfactory. Before sending her to visit, I myself spent a day in Indianapolis under the guidance of Superintendent Kendall and his assistant, and then I arranged very carefully the schedule for this teacher. The results were quite beyond my most sanguine expectations. The teacher got the idea that beginners could be held to good order and a high grade of work and still have a spirit of freedom and enjoyment. She was able immediately to correct this her one outstanding weakness, and the next year I was able to use her school as a demonstration school to which I sent other visitors.

Obviously improvement in instruction is dependent upon clear concepts of good teaching. But that alone is not enough. These concepts need to be seen in action in a schoolroom. And they need to be seen by the teacher when he himself is feeling the need of improvement. In the absence of an opportunity for visitation, the next best thing is clear-cut word pictures of actual recitations. The officers of the Classroom Teachers Department and I, for the past three years, have been working with this idea in mind and have been endeavoring not only to secure such clear-cut word pictures, but to arrange them in order from poorest to best, so as to more fully carry their meaning and value to the teacher. The result at the end of the three years' work is a series of scales in the major technics of teaching—drill, problem, appreciation, and project. The making of scales is a minor detail. Some people are alarmed by statistical treatment, or anything that carries the implication of careful and detailed procedure. Whether this is a defense reaction due to an inferiority complex, we need not inquire at the present time. The important thing is that these recitation units have been carefully evaluated so that they really carry considerable authority. Each scale represents a total of over 800 judgments. That is, the twenty units selected after preliminary judgments have each been judged by forty different people—twenty on a score card basis, and twenty on a ranking basis. The scales as finally presented are arranged in the order of the average rank resulting from the scoring on a ranking basis, but the judgments on a score card basis are also given. Thus, any teacher who is critical can study in detail what forty different people have thought about each sample. The judges were chosen with considerable care, and were instructed exactly how to proceed.

While these scales have been formed with the cooperation of the classroom teachers in order to set up objective standards and help the individual teacher to improve her own work, they will doubtless serve many other purposes. For one thing, they should reduce the tyranny resulting from

the merely subjective standards of the supervisor. Understand, all respect is due the overworked supervisor. But the teacher is entitled to judgment on an objective basis quite free from the whims or temporary personal annoyances of any one person. An attempt to apply the scale to a lesson unit means a broad and comprehensive view, consideration of many of the most essential elements of successful teaching, time for study and comparison, and then a definite opportunity of matching the teacher's work with the sample chosen as most nearly like the work which the teacher has been doing. Such careful procedure will help in replacing snooper-vision by real super-vision with the emphasis on vision.

No attempt will be made at this time to defend the scale. A brief explanation accompanies the printed form. If there are differences in types of subject-matter then there are undoubtedly different procedures necessary in handling such subject-matter. If some material is wanted for automatic reproduction, then we need drill. If there is other material where thinking through to conclusions is more important, then we need the problem method, etc., through the major technics and the details under each. The plan presented recognizes that "teach" is a verb that takes two objectives (child and subject), and that a philosophy of method which neglects one of these is not adequate. In the long run, what we want is the best analysis of the teaching process that we can get. We are not interested in putting over any one method nor in bending all types of school work to one model. We are interested in a scheme that is comprehensive enough to properly analyze the work of the best teachers in our public schools. The series of scales covering the major technics of instruction should be a long step toward providing a comprehensive scheme of analysis and criticism, and they conform to the well-founded demand in education today for standards that are objective and definite.

HOW THE TEACHER IS PREPARING THE CHILD FOR A WORTHY USE OF LEISURE TIME

ANNIE G. SCOLLARD, GROVER CLEVELAND SCHOOL, BOSTON, MASS.

America's challenge to her teachers! This happily chosen theme for the basis of our convention message has certainly stimulated interest in calling forth responses from every source and type of training through which the all-round development of the child is reached.

It seems fitting, therefore, to include in the acceptance of this challenge some reference to the preparation of the child for a worthy use of his leisure time. In considering the real purpose of the school we must not lose sight of the fact that its vital aim is to enrich the life of the mind, of the conscience, of the heart, of the imagination.

Closely associated with this engrafting of a higher form of life comes to the child's mind, even though vaguely, a realization of the great spiritual

world around him. He becomes more observing and more appreciative of the beauty and wonders of nature.

Hand in hand with Nature walks,
Face to face with her he talks.
Nature answers all he asks:
Where the whitest lillies blow,
Where the freshest berries grow,
Where the groundnut trails its vine,
Where the wood-grape's clusters shine.

Whittier's young hero with his increasing knowledge of nature lore is refreshingly appealing. But while we admire, we instinctively question if he would have been as lovable a character if fate had placed him amid different surroundings.

Fortunate are those boys and girls whose recreational hours are passed in close, unrestricted contact with nature. With the open air as a tonic they wander through broad fields and shady woods, wade in fascinating brooks, fish in glaring ponds, watch with joyous anticipation and welcome the different birds and wild flowers as they appear, each with its individual message and in response to its own peculiar summons.

However, the demand made upon the school to prepare pupils for a worthwhile and enjoyable use of leisure is applicable to all children regardless of heritage or environment. And it must be granted that school systems have made enormous strides in meeting this demand.

Farsighted and broadminded men and women have recognized the necessity of training children to use leisure in lawful, harmless enjoyments, not only for the beneficial results during the childhood period, but more particularly for the formation of habits which will continue to function through life. For the maintenance of a good social order it is just as essential for people to know how to spend their recreational as their vocational hours.

In enumerating the means which the school has used in its aim to prepare pupils for the rightful enjoyment of leisure, we note sports and games, music, art, and literature as the most important. The formation of school clubs and the various activities involved are also recognized factors of this movement.

The growth of the playground movement in Boston from its humble beginning in 1886 has been remarkable. The aim is to have every schoolyard used as a play center during the time that it is not in use by the school. An authentic report of the 1925 season states that¹ "30,000 boys and girls were attracted daily to children's corners in forty parks, and to thirty-five schoolyard playgrounds equipped for the purpose."

These playgrounds are under the supervision of trained teachers. Recognition of the importance of training in games and sports is evident from the adoption of the regulation requiring all students at the teachers college of Boston to complete a course in playground methods.

¹ *Report of Supervisor of Playgrounds.* Julia A. Murphy.

As recreational activity is community wide in its interests, the playground work is closely affiliated with many community organizations. Teaching in any line to be effective must stand the test of after-school life. Children to whom the natural birthright of play has not been denied feel the stimulus of the play instinct, the opportunity for self-expression. With the training in the technic of games they develop power not only to enjoy their leisure hours but they become valuable members of society in group and community service.

Not the least in the steps for the preparation for a worthy use of leisure time is the fostering of the love and habit of good reading. It is interesting to note from a report of the library association that despite the lure of the radio, the motion picture habit, and numerous other methods of occupying the leisure hours of people, reading still more than holds its place as the pastime par excellence of our people. This is the best evidence that a real appreciation of the value of literature and the habit of reading and the study of worthwhile books are fostered in our schools.

The study of art and music brings messages of beauty, sweetness, and rhythm. It opens to the child mind a new world of thought and develops creative power. The thrilling interest in the story-tellers in the library classes, the visits with the art guides at the museum of fine arts, the wonders of the collections as exhibited to classes at the children's museum, all contribute to the formation of habits which make our children (and later as adults) not only happier and brighter beings, but useful, worthy citizens in any community.

THE CLASSROOM TEACHER AND THE CURRICULUM— ABSTRACT

JAMES F. HOSIC, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY
NEW YORK CITY

In order to discover the relation of the classroom teacher to the curriculum it is necessary to inquire what we mean by "curriculum." In the narrow sense it means an organization of materials for lessons to be studied and recited. In the broad sense it means a selected body of controlled experiences to be provided for the education of children.

The classroom teacher has much to do with the curriculum in each of these senses. In the latter particularly, he is in reality the determining factor. If he has a clear perception of the true nature of educative experience, he finds ways and means of enabling it. He realizes that in fact, children educate themselves. His task is to supply the proper conditions.

Classroom teachers have shown remarkable progress in recent years in the matter of evaluating and guiding the activities of children. The better teachers no longer follow the textbook. They adapt it to their plans of work. They regard their pupils, moreover, not as mere recipients but as active agents in planning and carrying on. The result is a new and more vital type of school.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON THE REDUCTION OF CLERICAL WORK

EULA F. HUNTER, FORT WORTH, TEXAS

The committee on the reduction of clerical work was instructed to bring in reports of such places as have made notable progress in the reduction of clerical work on the part of the teachers.

Your committee has received from representative cities of twenty-seven states sample forms of record sheets and reports. These indicate that even within a single state there is a vast difference in the amount of clerical work which must be done by the teacher. Among different city systems of comparatively the same size the number of reports which teachers must make differs widely.

The solution of this difficulty would come, we think, through reducing to the minimum the clerical work of the classroom teacher and employing assistants to work out the voluminous reports which many systems require.

The Research Division of the National Educational Association, in compiling its salary report, found that many cities are employing clerical assistants. The following information is taken from *Public School Salaries*, Volume III, Numbers 1 and 2:

Salaries Paid Clerks in Principals' Offices

Population Group	Cities Reporting	Number of Clerks Employed	Median Salaries
2,500— 5,000 -----	74	83	\$866
5,000— 10,000 -----	87	106	767
10,000— 30,000 -----	167	312	966
30,000—100,000 -----	137	799	973
Over 100,000 -----	51	2947	1372
Total -----	516	4247	\$1216

Your committee requests that through the Research Division of National Educational Association, if possible, a study be made of the amount of time consumed by the classroom teachers in keeping records in their respective schools, and from such a study to ascertain which school systems are able to keep adequate records at minimum expenditures of the classroom teachers' time.

THE SINGLE SALARY SCHEDULE

ANNA M. THOMPSON, KANSAS CITY, MO.

Last year after giving our report on the single salary schedule it was recommended that the conference approve the continued study of this subject by the classroom department, and that an inquiry be made as to whether and to what extent inequalities exist in the teaching load in primary, intermediate, and high school work.

Information for this report was collected in the following ways:

1. By direct inquiry from teachers attending regional conferences and state associations.
2. By culling information from the bulletins of various teacher organizations.
3. By attending the meeting on the single salary schedule at the Department of Superintendence in Washington, where papers were read on the subject by two superintendents and two classroom teachers, followed by a spirited discussion from the floor.
4. By sending out questionnaires to representative men and women classroom teachers in cities listed as operating under the single salary schedule by the National Education Association. In some instances questionnaires were sent to superintendents when names of classroom teachers were unknown, or when they failed to respond. In every case, the information has been obtained from some responsible person. Only a very few cities have failed to respond at all.

Since the idea of a single salary schedule did not originate full-fledged, but has been a gradual evolution, we desired first to find whether there is an agreement at the present time as to just what constitutes such a schedule, hence the first question: "What is your definition of a single salary schedule?"

Highland Park, Michigan, replies, "One salary for men, women, grade, high school, and special teachers, affected by preparation, experience, quality, and market conditions." Note particularly "market conditions."

Moline gives this conception of the single salary: "Same salary for men and women. We have different schedules for grade and high school."

St. Joseph, Missouri, says, "One based on teaching experience and academic training which applies alike to all teachers, high school or elementary, white or colored, male or female, when performing the duties of a classroom teacher."

Jackson, Michigan, responds, "One in which the salary is based on education, experience, and merit, and not on grade or department in which the teaching is done." Notice that the merit element is here introduced for the first time.

Lincoln, Nebraska, says, "The single salary schedule undertakes to pay teachers with equal successful experience and training the same salary irrespective of assignment."

Wilmington, Delaware, replies, "A definite scale based on training, experience, and duties." Observe the entrance of "duties."

Terre Haute, Indiana, says, "No discrimination between men and women. No discrimination between grade and high school teachers. Salaries dependent upon training and experience and not upon teaching level."

Other definitions received were repetitions in thought of the foregoing, though worded somewhat differently.

Flint, Michigan, through Superintendent E. E. Lewis, seems to include all the factors except "market conditions." A new qualifier "basic" is here introduced. He says: The phrase "basic single salary schedule" means a schedule of salaries covering all classrooms teachers in kindergarten and grades one to twelve, inclusive, regardless of sex, position, grade or subject

taught. It means equal pay for equal work, equal merit, equal length of service, and equal academic and professional preparation.

The term "basic" means that the single salary schedule for teachers is the one used as a basis for the building of salary schedules for all other groups of personnel. The second question propounded was: "How long has the single salary schedule been in operation in your city?"

According to replies received, we find that Lincoln, Nebraska, Highland Park and Jackson, Michigan, are among the pioneers in the adoption of this schedule, having used it eight years. Denver has been operating under the schedule six years, while Portland, Oregon, adopted the schedule during the past school year. Other cities report having used it from one to seven years.

If there are exceptions to or modifications of the general rule, such as bonuses, or extra remuneration of any sort, what are they?

Terre Haute reports a \$50 bonus for summer school study or travel in addition to regular salary.

Denver reports that student counselors in high school are paid \$300 extra, and that coaches for high school athletics are paid \$200 above schedule.

Minneapolis paid the original group of junior high school teachers a special maximum.

Moline pays deans, debate coaches, and heads of departments an extra salary. On account of "market price," teachers in junior college are not confined to the maximum salary paid classroom teachers in Moline.

Portland's salary committee of the Portland Grade Teachers' Association reported in their January, 1926, bulletin that 75 non-degree high school teachers now in service were to be given the same salary as degree teachers, which, they say, prevents the schedule from actually being a single salary schedule.

Wilmington, Delaware; Rockford, Illinois; Jackson, Lansing, and Kalamazoo, Michigan, all of which are listed as operating under the single salary schedule, unabashedly, pay men more than they pay women with the same experience, training, and duties. The differentials range from \$100 in Rockford, to \$300 in Lansing. Rockford pays \$200 to \$250 above schedule to advisors in senior high school. Joliet reports that teachers of ungraded rooms and fresh air rooms, also special named training teachers, are paid extra—from \$50 to \$100 per year.

Spokane reports that science teachers, Smith-Hughes teachers, heads of departments, directors of extra-curricular activities, and session room teachers, who are carrying fall work in addition to having charge of session rooms are paid an extra remuneration. Special teachers of music and drawing, home economics and manual training receive more than grade teachers. Deans of girls and heads of departments are paid above the teacher schedule.

Colorado Springs reports that at present no extra remuneration is paid.

4. What value is placed on the skill of those teachers who have no degree?

After the initial salary is determined, Spokane teachers without degrees receive an annual increase of \$50 for each year of experience up to a total allowance for eleven years of experience.

Joliet considers successful experience in raising salaries.

Lansing considers skill or very superior teaching ability as worth a maximum salary of \$2100 without a degree, while with a degree the maximum is \$2350. However, if this very superior teacher chances to be a man he will jump from the maximum of \$2100 to the men's maximum of \$2750 upon obtaining a degree.

East Chicago, Colorado Springs, Kalamazoo, Denver, and Jackson reply that allowance is made in the salary increased for skilled teachers without degrees already in the system, but their maximum is not as high as those with an A. B. degree.

The skilled teachers without degrees in Minneapolis were granted special state certificates for years of successful teaching service.

Highland Park attempts to arrive at a comparative estimate of the teacher's quality as well as quantity of experience, his maturity and grasp of device and method. In any year when the financial condition justifies it, the board of education may decide to modify the increment of any teacher who ranks 1, 2, 3, or 4. Those who rank 5 are not retained.

As mentioned before, Portland's Grade Teachers' Association Bulletin reports that 75 non-degree high school teachers now in service are to be given the same salaries as degree teachers. The Portland Grade Teachers' Association salary committee comments—"this lays a basis for charges of discrimination in the future if any further elections of non-degree (but highly skilled and technically trained) teachers are made for the high school corps.

5. Was the salary of any employee decreased when your system was inaugurated? This question was unanimously answered "no."

6. Have you lost any men from your corps on account of the adoption of this schedule? The large majority answered "no," but there are exceptions.

Lincoln says "Yes, in a few instances contracts independent of schedule have been made in order to hold capable men."

St. Joseph, Missouri, Superintendent replies, "Find it hard to keep men under present schedule."

Moline says, "We have lost men because our schedule is too low."

Minneapolis replies, "Not because of the single salary schedule, but because of the low salary generally of the teaching profession. Denver says, "Do not believe the proportion of men to women has changed much."

One city replied, "Perhaps we have lost one, and yet, in this particular instance there was no loss to us."

7. Has it led to the employment of cheaper men in the service?

Kalamazoo replies, "No, because the men of the corps are not limited by the same maximum as women. The men start on \$150 higher salaries than do the women."

Wilmington says, "To secure men of desirable type variation from the scale is required."

Denver says, "I do not believe so. A college man can begin at \$1500 and advance \$150 a year for ten years to a salary of \$3000 per year."

Jackson, Michigan, confesses, "In practice, our men are on a separate schedule from the women, and the salaries are higher."

Moline reports, "No—not cheaper, but fewer." Lincoln, Nebraska, says, "No. The difficulty is not in employing promising men, but rather in holding them."

St. Joseph, Missouri, says, "Possibly so,—at least not so efficient."

All others answered "no."

8. Do inequalities exist in the teaching load in primary, intermediate, and high school work?

Denver, Minneapolis, Jackson, Joliet, St. Joseph, Colorado Springs, Spokane, East Chicago, Wilmington, Kalamazoo, and Lincoln believe that such inequalities do exist, while Sioux City, Terre Haute, and Cedar Rapids vote "no." Some failed to answer this question.

The inequalities listed were in—

1. Number of pupils to the teacher
2. Ability of pupils
3. Number and length of class periods
4. Extra-curricular activities
5. Length of school day.

The majority believed that the high school teachers have the heavier load on account of extra-curricular activities.

9. How are such inequalities remedied?

Lincoln says, "This is a matter of constant attention on the part of administrative officers. Often very difficult to bring about real equities. Official teaching loads are defined as follows:

Elementary, 35 pupils to teacher
Junior High School, 30 pupils to teacher
Senior High School, 25 pupils to teacher.

Rockford also defines and strives to adjust the number of hours and number of pupils to the teacher.

Kalamazoo endeavors to equalize the load in different grades by limiting the numbers, and by giving free periods.

St. Joseph tries to reduce inequalities by gradual changes of environmental conditions.

Colorado Springs says, "The tendency at present is to lengthen the school day in the elementary schools, thus making their load more nearly equal other schools."

Highland Park replies that teachers who carry exceptionally heavy loads get recognition in rank.

Denver says that the office checks up the teacher load in various schools, and informs principals, who remedy inequalities as far as possible. Restlessness of younger children was mentioned as counter-balancing the longer day and extra-curricular duties of the high school teachers.

Jackson, Michigan, seems pessimistic on the subject of remedying inequalities. The superintendent replies, "They are not, and cannot be." Joliet also replies that the inequalities are not remedied, except that each junior high teacher is given a vacant period as far as possible. East Chicago and Spokane admit they have no remedy at present.

10. Have taxes been increased by the adoption of this schedule?

San Antonio reported at the superintendents' meeting on the single salary that the city was finding it a heavy financial burden, but since it made for unity and harmony it would not be abandoned even though the community's taxes had increased.

Lincoln, St. Joseph, Colorado Springs, Terre Haute, Highland Park, Denver, Jackson, Moline and Wilmington report that taxes have been increased; while Spokane, Sioux City, Minneapolis, Joliet, Kalamazoo, East Chicago, and Cedar Rapids answer "no."

Others modify their answers by saying that taxes have increased not alone on account of the single salary but because of the growing demands of the schools.

11. What is the attitude of the taxpayer to the single salary schedule?

Lincoln says, "It is accepted as a fair and reasonable basis. The taxpayer's objection to salary is not usually because of the special form of schedule. Occasionally, there is a demand for decrease in teachers' salaries but on the whole Lincoln enjoys the fine cooperation of the public in this respect."

St. Joseph replies, "No reaction to single salary, but a strong reaction against taxes. Terre Haute responds, "Generally favorable." Kalamazoo, Joliet, Highland Park, Sioux City and Spokane report no opposition. Denver replies that the taxpayers generally seem to approve since it is good advertising for Denver, and that only occasionally is there an objection to school taxes in general.

Jackson and Wilmington report that the taxpayers know practically nothing about it, so no objection is apparent. Minneapolis believes that the taxpayer is not interested in the method by which the salary is administered.

Moline and Cedar Rapids expressed themselves as not knowing the attitude of the taxpayers. Colorado Springs reports that the superintendent secured the approval of every civic organization in the city before its adoption, therefore, there has been little complaint on the part of representative taxpayers.

Conclusions—In the light of the foregoing investigation, we may fairly assume that, at the present time, so-called single salary schedules do not always pay the same salaries to all who have the same preparation, experience, merit, and position. Men are paid higher salaries in many places

where single salary schedules are said to be in operation, the administrators justifying the circumvention of the schedule on the basis of "market conditions."

This is prevented in Washington and New York by state laws requiring equal pay for men and women who do the same kind of work.

We find, also, that while inequalities in the teaching load do still exist, that in many places there is an honest endeavor to equalize the load by giving extra pay for extra work, by allowing free periods to teachers with unusually heavy classes, by equalizing the numbers in classes as far as possible, by rotating the highest ability groups among different teachers, and by equalizing the length of the school day in different types of schools.

Superintendent Lewis says, "The prevailing wage schedule for teachers in America is based upon celibacy. The idea of celibacy must be dissipated. It is not fair to assume that because a person is unmarried no one depends upon him for support."

The above statements are founded upon facts, we believe, because we find in present day contracts in some cities this expressed condition, "If a female, you must be unmarried and so remain or forfeit your contract."

Suggestions—Kilpatrick believes that all worthwhile activity leads to further activity and to branching action.

We suggest, then, two lines of further activity branching from our study:

1. To determine the places where celibacy is required of women in order to secure and retain positions; and to find if possible, whether salaries are affected thereby and how.
2. To find the number of dependents that both male and female teachers have provided for during their teaching careers. Representative schools might be chosen, in which to make the study, from several of each group of cities classified according to population.

Objective—Would it not be a great forward step for all classroom teachers to strive for true single salary schedules everywhere with maximums high enough to *attract* and *hold* capable married men, and which equally capable single women with aged parents to support and orphan nieces and nephews to educate, might also achieve?

SECOND PROGRESS REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON RETARDATION COSTS DUE TO OVER- CROWDED CLASSES

JEAN L. SOULES, SPOKANE, WASH.

The progress report made at the Indianapolis meeting of this department, held July 2, 1925, stated two main heads under which it was proposed to study the problem of retardation costs due to overcrowded primary classes:

1. The relation, if any, between class size and retardation.
2. The comparative cost of large and small classes as modified by the amount of retardation traceable to class size.

Following the 1925 meeting, letters asking cooperation were sent to three western institutions of higher learning. The earliest reply was re-

ceived from Frederick L. Whitney, director of research, Colorado State Teachers College. Cordial response came also from John C. Almack, of Stanford University, and from Fred C. Ayer, of the University of Washington. Professor Ayer has found it necessary to postpone his investigation of the question. We are glad to report that he expects to make it next year.

Doctor Almack has proposed a most interesting line of study including an inquiry as to whether large classes constitute a tax upon the health of teachers and to what extent they figure among the reasons why teachers leave the profession. These phases of the question are important and should, in the opinion of the committee, receive consideration in a study of class size. By enlarging the committee we may be able to cover this phase in the coming year.

Work was begun on Doctor Whitney's plan of investigation with the hope that it might be completed in time to report findings at this meeting. Our thanks are due Doctor Whitney for his generous offer to conduct this investigation, compiling and evaluating the data in his office. We are fortunate to have his expert service.

The committee undertook to gather the data requested by Doctor Whitney. Letters were sent to sixty-seven school superintendents. The letters were accompanied by mimeographed sheets fully explaining the desired data and the method of securing it. For the convenience of the superintendents a price list of the tests called for was also prepared by the committee and sent with the other material. Twenty replies were received. Seven stated that they found it impossible to cooperate with us as their research programs for the year were already full. Since not enough data has been secured to justify a conclusion, we are carrying the study over into next year. This is in accordance with the statement made by the chairman to the executive committee when this task was assigned, that is, that it would take at least three years. Some classes have been tested this year, but the results could not be tabulated in time to be included in this report. We are assured of a certain number of classes for next year, but we need still more. A list of the cities invited to cooperate is given below:

California	Springfield	Lawrence
Berkeley	Indiana	Lowell
Sacramento	Evansville	Lynn
Connecticut	Fort Wayne	New Bedford
Bridgeport	Gary	Springfield
Hartford	South Bend	Worcester
New Haven	Terre Haute	Michigan
Wilmington	Iowa	Grand Rapids
Florida	Des Moines	Minnesota
Jacksonville	Kansas	Duluth
Georgia	Kansas City	Nebraska
Savannah	Maine	Omaha
Illinois	Portland	New Jersey
Peoria	Massachusetts	Bayonne
Rockford	Fall River	Camden

Elizabeth	Oregon	Texas
Paterson	Portland	Dallas
Trenton	Pennsylvania	Fort Worth
New York	Erie	Houston
Albany	Harrisburg	San Antonio
Schenectady	Johnstown	Utah
Syracuse	Reading	Salt Lake City
Utica	Scranton	Virginia
Yonkers	South Carolina	Richmond
Ohio	Charleston	Washington
Canton	Tennessee	Seattle
Dayton	Chattanooga	Spokane
Youngstown	Knoxville	Wisconsin
Oklahoma	Memphis	Madison
Oklahoma City	Nashville	Racine
Tulsa		Milwaukee

It will be of help to the committee if teachers' organizations in those cities will offer their assistance to their respective superintendents. In some cases the expense of the investigation is an obstacle. On this item, also, organizations might help. In some cases teachers perform the clerical work under the direction of a supervisor or other trained member of the superintendent's staff. This serves the double purpose of giving teachers some practical experience with a testing program.

It has been difficult to get this work under way and there have been many delays. The task involves much correspondence, and that takes time. This report is submitted with a full realization of its incompleteness, and with the recommendation that the work be carried on one more year, the committee to make its final report at the summer meeting of 1927.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

First Session, Tuesday Afternoon, June 29, 1926

The first session of the Department of Classroom Teachers was held in the Central High School, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, on Tuesday afternoon, June 29, 1926. The meeting was called to order by the president. The following program was presented:

- HOW THE CLASSROOM TEACHER IS MEETING THE NEEDS OF THE CHILD
 THROUGH TEACHER PREPARATION—Joseph Rosier, President, State Teachers College, Fairmont, W. Va.
 THROUGH CHARACTER TRAINING—Milton Fairchild, President, Character Education Institution, Washington, D. C.
 THROUGH BETTER INSTRUCTION—Guy M. Wilson, Professor of Education, School of Education, Boston University, Boston, Mass.
 THROUGH WORTHY USE OF LEISURE TIME—Annie G. Scollard, Grover Cleveland School, Boston, Mass.
 THROUGH COOPERATION WITH THE HOME—Mrs. A. H. Reeve, President, National Congress of Parents and Teachers, Ambler, Pa.
 THROUGH THE CURRICULUM—James F. Hosis, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

Second Session, Thursday Afternoon, July 1, 1926

Business meeting—President Julia E. Sullivan called the meeting to order. The minutes of the last business meetings were read by the secretary, Clara Lynn.

Miss Harden, of Chicago, Ill., stated that the number of classroom teacher delegates at Des Moines was 146, of which 81 were elementary teachers. With this correction the minutes were approved.

At this point, Miss Harden, of Chicago, offered the suggestion that next year the secretary's report be printed so that members may have copies to take home and read over, incidentally saving at least a half hour of valuable time at the annual meeting.

The chair stated that the matter would be referred to the incoming officers for action, and announced the procedure of business for the meeting as listed in the official program.

Reports of Committees—Miss Hunter called attention to the Report on Reduction of Clerical Work as printed on page 39 of the First Yearbook. Upon motion of Miss Hunter the report was adopted as printed.

Miss Hunter called attention to the Report on Regional Conferences on pages 20, 21, and 22 of the First Yearbook and moved its adoption. Motion carried.

Charl Williams, Field and Legislative Secretary of the National Education Association was presented to the members. Miss Williams stated that her sole excuse for being present at this time was to promote the Education Bill. "I believe and have always believed that the best promoters of the Bill are the classroom teachers in their various towns and local communities. Many of you were present at the meeting of the Legislative Commission on Sunday afternoon—the president of every local classroom teachers' organization in the United States was invited—and many of you who are delegates heard the discussion then and again on yesterday morning."

Miss Williams outlined a procedure and asked each one present to acquaint herself with the provisions of the Bill and urged them to work in their local communities, acquainting people with the purpose of the measure and securing their support, and if any members of their communities are against the measure to remove some of their fears because after all the opposition to this Bill is largely based on fear of what might happen, things that never could come to pass.

Miss Williams asked for cooperation and requested that she might be permitted to follow up later with the approval of the executive committee of the Department the work that she had outlined.

Clara Lynn, secretary, called attention to the report of Regional Conferences held by her as recorded on pages 22 and 23 of the First Yearbook and stated that other conferences were held by her at Aberdeen, South Dakota; Butte and Missoula, Montana. On motion of Miss Lynn, the report was adopted.

Anna Thompson, executive committee member from the middle section, submitted the report of Regional Conferences as printed on pages 24 and 25. On motion of Miss Thompson report was adopted.

Miss Thompson then read her report on single salary schedule as ordered by the annual meeting of 1925. Report adopted on motion of Miss Thompson.

Jean Soules, executive committee member from the western section presented her report of Regional Conferences as printed in the First Yearbook on pages 25, 26, and 27, and moved the adoption. Report adopted.

Miss Soules called attention to the second progress report on the Retardation Problem pages 40 and 41 of the First Yearbook. On motion of Miss Soules the report was adopted.

Edith B. Joynes, executive committee member from the eastern section presented her report on Regional Conferences as printed on pages 23 and 24 of Yearbook. On motion of Mrs. Joynes the report was adopted.

New Business—At this point the chair requested that all who were not classroom teachers to withdraw to the side sections of the hall or to the balcony and then stated that the next order of business was the election of officers for the coming year. Officers to be elected for one year, president, vice-president, and secretary, for three years executive committee member for the middle section. Any class-

room teacher who is a member of the National Education Association is entitled to vote.

Annie G. Scollard, Boston, Mass., was chosen to be chairman of tellers, other members of the election committee were May M. Abbe, Chicago; Mary Ralls, Kansas City, Mo.; Helen Rathbun, Chicago, and Miss Galpin of Los Angeles.

Grace Toomey, of Kansas City, Mo., nominated Anna M. Thompson for president. There being only one candidate it was moved that the secretary be instructed to cast one ballot for Miss Thompson. Objection to this procedure was offered by Miss Galpin, Los Angeles, and the president ruled that as objection was offered the meeting would proceed to ballot. Anna M. Thompson was unanimously elected.

Mary B. Sullivan, of Castleton, Vermont, Normal School, was nominated by Clara Manthey, Milwaukee, and was unanimously elected vice-president.

Nominees for secretary were: Clara Lynn, of Seattle and Cora Mull, of Chicago. Miss Lynn was elected secretary.

The nominees for executive committee member from the middle section were Estelle Boggess, Denver, Colorado; Nora Barron, of Minneapolis; Imogen Squires, of Columbus, Ohio, and Eula F. Hunter, of Fort Worth, Texas. Eula Hunter was elected for a three-year term.

Recommendations of the president as printed on pages 18 and 19 of the First Yearbook were read and adopted (except the one relating to a Departmental fee) together with recommendations from Regional Conferences printed on pages 27 and 28 as the working policy of the Department. The recommendation relating to a Departmental fee was discussed at some length. On motion of Miss Harden, Chicago, it was voted that the question of a Departmental fee be placed in the hands of a committee to report at the next annual meeting.

It was moved by Miss Harden, of Chicago, that we request the Executive Committee of the National Education Association to have made a reprint of the pages in the Volume of Proceedings which contain the list of the delegates, their educational positions and addresses. Motion passed.

Election of members to the National Council of Education—Julia E. Sullivan, Boston, Mass., was elected as member of the Council for six years.

Miss Galpin, Los Angeles, California, was elected for four years.

Frances Harden, Chicago, Ill., member for two years.

The following communication was then read:

Los Angeles City Teachers' Club—The Los Angeles City Teachers' Club at the membership meeting held on June 14, 1926 adopted the following resolutions:

Whereas: The western district served by the western regional representative of the National Education Association, Classroom Department, extends from Washington to the Mexican border and from the Rockies to the Coast.

Whereas: We do not know the amount of dues paid yearly by the classroom teachers in this district but Los Angeles City alone pays over \$5000.

Whereas: The representative for this territory must find her usefulness greatly curtailed by the meagre allowance of \$300.

Whereas: It may be that other regional directors are also handicapped by a large territory and a small allowance; therefore, be it

Resolved that the Los Angeles City Teachers' Club formally request that the Executive Board of the Department of Classroom Teachers of the National Education Association increase the yearly allowance of regional directors, and that they be provided with a sum substantial enough to greatly facilitate their efforts towards a united membership, not less than \$600 per year. Respectfully submitted, Los Angeles City Teachers' Club, Gladys Evelyn Moorhead, president.

On motion of Miss Moorhead it was voted that this resolution be adopted by this body. Carried. It was further moved that a copy be sent to the Executive Committee of National Education Association for action at its meeting on Friday afternoon. Carried.

Miss Moorhead stated that a copy of this resolution of Los Angeles City Teachers had been sent to the Executive Committee of the National Education Association, but upon being informed by a member of that Committee that the matter had not been brought up, the members present at our annual meeting moved that it be presented officially.

Upon motion of Miss Galpin, of Los Angeles, it was voted that the members of the executive committee of the Department of Classroom Teachers be instructed to personally appear before the Executive Committee of the National Education Association to request adequate financial support to the extent of \$10,000 in addition to the amount now allowed the Department, to develop a technic of local organizations within the national association, and that this amount cover traveling expenses for two organizers paid by the Association, under leave of absence from school work, and that a report of this experiment be made at the 1927 convention.

Miss Galpin, of Los Angeles, brought to the attention of the body this resolution, which had the endorsement of the entire California delegation of 138 members which she as chairman was empowered to present for them.

On motion of Miss Harden, of Chicago, it was voted that officers of the Department of Classroom Teachers be directed to again communicate with the president and members of the Executive Committee of the National Education Association requesting that delegate lists be published giving information as to name, address, educational position, and organization represented, and that this list be made available for use by this organization.

Meeting adjourned at 5:35 p. m.

Department of Deans of Women

THE DEPARTMENT OF DEANS OF WOMEN (National Association of Deans of Women) associated itself with the National Education Association in 1918. Its meeting is first reported in *Proceedings* 1918: 391-417.

The officers of the Department for the year 1926-27 are: *President*, Dorothy Stimson, Dean of Women, Goucher College, Baltimore, Md.; *Secretary*, Elizabeth M. Hause, Dean of Girls, West Chester High School, West Chester, Pa. This Department meets once a year, in February. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1918: 391-417	1920: 357-364	1922: 693-793	1924: 500-536	1925: 403-449
1919: 393-426	1921: 407-420	1923: 621-636		

PERSONNEL WORK RELATING TO STUDIES IN COLLEGE. ABSTRACT

L. B. HOPKINS, DIRECTOR OF PERSONNEL, NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY

PERSONNEL WORK is not a system, but a point of view. This point of view emphasizes the problems of education in terms of the individual. Insofar as it exerts an influence, it affects the thinking and procedure in such matters as the content of the curriculum, the basis for the selection of instructors, methods of teaching, the basis of selection of students, the personal assistance of students in their college work and in their preparation for life, including educational, vocational, and personal counseling and health and hygiene service, both mental and physical, and in the promotion and utilization of the methods of science in research in order that we may know and evaluate better the significance of individual differences.

Personnel work is not a new thing in colleges, for any administrator or faculty member who has been led into helpful personal contacts with individual students is, in a very real sense, a personnel worker. Some presidents, deans of colleges, deans of men and of women, and faculty advisers have given a major portion of their time to this type of individual service.

With the increase in the number of those seeking and obtaining admission to college, there has arisen the need for coordinating these efforts both in service and research and the supplementing of the work so that we may deal with the individual as a whole rather than in parts.

The sympathetic appreciation and cooperation of the deans of women is essential to satisfactory progress in this work.

WHAT SHOULD BE DETERMINING FACTORS IN RE- QUIREMENTS FOR ADMISSION TO COLLEGE EXAMINATIONS

HELEN SANDISON, SECRETARY, COMMITTEE ON ADMISSIONS, VASSAR
COLLEGE, POUGHKEEPSIE, N. Y.

The subject of this conference, I take it, is to be interpreted to mean "what are the determining factors in our selection of candidates for college?" Selection is forced on us. This is true in varying degrees of every college here represented. And immediately something further is forced on us: the determination of the qualities we desire in the college freshmen whom we select. These freshmen are to come together as students to study, to learn to interpret life, past and present, in a community organized for the purposes of study. It is essential then that they have intelligence; intellectual interests manifesting themselves in aggressive curiosity and independent pursuit rather than passive receptivity; adequate preparation both in content and in method of study for the more mature intellectual work before them; health, bodily and mental

adequate to the demands of life in the organized group. These, I believe, are the qualities we wish. How shall we find out which candidates possess them, and in what degree?

The group of colleges which I represent have since 1919 made this selection by a balancing of school record, examination results, personal and health records, and the impression made in personal conference (when-ever that has been possible). Next June we shall employ for the first time as an additional feature, the scholastic aptitude tests (psychological tests) of the college board. The balance among these factors is variable; it is established separately for each individual case, one factor checking another as each personal situation seems to justify.

Evidence of a less subjective nature is at hand in the decreasing number of students dropped for poor work; in the four years before the change the freshmen dropped for low standing at mid-year (out of about 300) numbered 23, 26, 11, 13; in the three years of transition, 9, 10, 4; in the four years since the change was completely effected, influencing all the students in college, 3, 2, 0, 1. In the last five years it is true, part of the class has been chosen by competition; but two-thirds have been accepted in order of application, as at present. As Dean Thompson says in her annual report for 1924-25:

For the last four years—the rate of academic mortality is remarkably low, a fraction over one percent, in a college which closes the year with 1120 students enrolled . . . failures arise from lack of purpose or from some difficulty in social adjustment, and almost never from lack of mental ability or of technical preparation in the student.

Further objective evidence is furnished by studies of the comparative value of school and examination records in predicting the grade of work in college. Recently the English departments of four colleges, Smith, Wellesley, Mt. Holyoke, and Vassar, have made such a study of the English grades. The comparison was informal because, whereas the English entrance examination grades for all of the 1198 freshmen entering the four colleges in 1924 were compared with the second semester English grades of these students in college, the final school grades in English in comparison with the second semester college grades were taken for only the 227 out of those 1198 who came from schools sending relatively large numbers to one at least of the four institutions. But the results of the investigation were strongly suggestive of the conclusion that the examination grade at least in the upper registers is a more reliable index than the school grade of performance in college.

In discussions of this problem an unpublished report made to a college board committee has been more than once publicly quoted as "indicating that the examinations given by the college entrance board are not so valuable as indications of probable success in college as are the school records in the same subjects." It is only fair to add another portion of the unpublished report: that "no records were requested from schools

that sent fewer than five pupils to one of these colleges," that "in cases of Mt. Holyoke, Smith, and Wellesley no large group of students could be found who had prepared at any one school" (and Vassar would have been added if included in the study); finally that the list of schools whose grades were studied for Harvard, for instance, were these and these only: Andover, Boston Latin, Latin, St. George's, St. Paul's, St. Mark's. Without offering the suggestion that conceivably the boys may have been affected in their school success by the very fact that they were working towards the board examinations, one can certainly question any conclusions on the general reliability of school records based on such a tried and trusty ten. Vassar College not only receives a small proportion of its students from schools already well represented on its registers, the value of whose grades is known from full experience, but it also has a special desire to receive students from schools new to it and in outlying districts. It feels therefore that it must rely on a uniform objective test as a check for the school record.

As to the relative value of the intelligence test used for entrance, Vassar will not until next June have an opportunity to make observations; but the predictive value of the psychological tests which Vassar has given for some years to freshmen in the first week after entrance, seems decidedly lower than the predictive value of the entrance records, using Board examinations. I quote from the 1924 report of the Vassar Student Personnel Service to the National Research Council: "The correlations of our psychological tests¹ with academic achievement have not been high, and in but one year higher than the correlations of entrance record with academic achievement."

Correlation with freshman credit ratio:

	1920-21	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24	1924-25
Psychological test.....	30	37	37	39	38
Entrance record.....	48	45	48	37	38

The written examination therefore has proved its distinct value, we believe, in determining fitness for college. Undoubtedly it stands in need of the improvement that will come out of the study now being made of the new type of examinations—with the result, I should hope, of greater objectivity and reliability and comprehensiveness, and at the same time the preservation of the test of skill, imaginative response, individual methods of approach, and power to organize and correlate, which certain of the comprehensive papers of the board now offer. The tendency to "teach towards" examinations is definitely discouraged by the comprehensive type. The growing satisfaction with the comprehensive type as compared with the old restricted type is indicated by the recent recommendations of the conference on uniform entrance requirements in English, and of the school and college conference on English, looking towards the

¹ The psychological tests used were the Thurstone through 1923, the Thorndike in 1923-24 and 1924-25.

exclusive use of a comprehensive type of English paper; and also by the proposed definition of the requirement in Latin, just issued, which would offer only comprehensive papers in Latin.

Undoubtedly, too, the results of the written examination in individual instances are misleading.

It is also true that since school records and personal recommendations are so monotonously alike and when only one candidate out of two or three can be chosen, there is a tendency for baffled committees on admission to reach out for tangible examination records, to furnish a counting-in and counting-out formula. But the admission boards are awake to the danger. We do not guarantee admission to every candidate who has passed an examination in every subject under the old plan, or reached a minimum acceptable standard in each of the four comprehensives under the new. If she has barely made the grade, or tried and tried again and again before at last proverbially succeeding, she will have to present unusual strength in all her other credentials to be accepted. On the other hand, if her total record warrants, the committee may allow a candidate another trial under the old plan after a summer of study; and in one case this last fall, we allowed a freshman to enter with one examination still not passed because we valued the other evidence she had to offer. Under the new plan the influence of the school and personal record operates much more freely than under the old; though here, too, the examination evidence must regularly be the deciding factor, since the school and other records are fairly uniform. It is searched for show of power, and strength at one point may offset weakness at another. There is no passing mark. The comments of the readers as to qualities of mind and methods of work are scrutinized more eagerly than the mere grades; and the books themselves are at hand on the committee table to be reread by committee members in cases of conflicting evidence, for signs of ability rather than of information. The Vassar committee distinctly and unambiguously prefers this system of examination to the old system of restricted examinations in every subject or part of a subject, since the new plan seems fairer to the candidate and more surely predictive of success in college; and the Vassar faculty, following a proposal made at a recent conference of the four colleges, has this year voted to accept the new plan only beginning in 1929. This seems to us practically to attain the end hoped for by Headmaster Farrand, where the school record will be used to show the ground covered and one estimate of the methods and results of study, while the four examinations will supply a further uniform test, at selected points and in whole subjects, of how the work has been done. In other words, the new plan, in use since 1916—of which it would seem Morgan Barnes has never heard—fulfills his desire for the future, "a combination of written test and certification," with examination evidence "supplemented, modified, or offset by first-hand favorable (or unfavorable) information from the candidate's teacher regarding his general ability and the probability of his profiting by college opportunity."

THE CONSIDERATION GIVEN TO SCHOOL RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ADMISSION TO GOUCHER COLLEGE

CARRIE MAE PROBST, REGISTRAR, GOUCHER COLLEGE, BALTIMORE, MD.

It is the policy of Goucher College to admit desirable applicants who are well prepared and able to meet the full entrance requirements on the basis of the school records and recommendations, without requiring entrance examinations. Contact is made with the applicant as early as possible in the preparatory course, and her progress during the remainder of the course is carefully watched. Due consideration is given to the personal qualifications of the applicant. Unless there is every assurance that she will be a desirable member of the college community she is not carried on the lists, even though her academic record gives promise of being satisfactory. As the applicant is best known in the school where she has been in daily contact with teachers and principal, the responsibility of saying that she is ready for college is placed upon the school authorities. The principal or responsible officer of the school is requested to indicate frankly and unreservedly the attitude the applicant has had toward her classroom obligations, the influence she has exerted in the school community, the activities in which she has been interested. At the close of the course the principal is asked for his certification of the preparatory work satisfactorily completed and for his final recommendation and endorsement. The applicant whose personal qualifications are found satisfactory, whose preparation is satisfactorily completed under the guidance of the college, whose final credentials are satisfactory, is accepted without further test of entrance examinations. This, then, is the Goucher policy of admission by recommendation.

There are conditions under which examinations are required on all or part of the preparation. An applicant whose grade record is not entirely satisfactory but who is recommended by the principal is eligible for admission upon passing four comprehensive entrance examinations. Examinations are required when the preparatory work has been done under irregular conditions. Subjects completed outside of school classes or in any irregular manner are credited only upon examination. An applicant who takes examinations for admission to any other college either before or after making application for admission to Goucher College forfeits the privilege of entering on the basis of her school record, and is eligible for admission only by making a satisfactory examination record. An applicant who takes June examinations for admission to another college is refused the privilege of repeating unsatisfactory examinations in September for admission to Goucher College.

Far more than merely receiving the school record and the formal recommendation is involved in admitting an applicant under the Goucher method. An analysis of the entrance requirements and an explanation of the way in which they are administered will show the nature of the information secured and the consideration given to each applicant. The entrance requirements briefly stated are:

1. College preparatory subjects that can be valued at fifteen units.
2. A general average of 80 for all the grades of the college preparatory subjects.
3. Graduation from the college preparatory course of an accredited school.
4. Satisfactory recommendation and endorsement from the principal of the school, showing that the applicant's influence in the school community has been good and that she is capable of profiting by a college education.

Those subjects recognized by Goucher College as preparatory subjects for which entrance credits will be given are English, history, languages, mathematics, laboratory science. No applicant is admitted with any entrance deficiency. Entrance credit is granted only for those secondary school subjects that are recognized by Goucher College as college preparatory subjects and are so listed in the college catalogue. These two regulations are absolutely enforced in the case of every applicant. When an applicant has not so planned her preparatory course as to meet the requirement of fifteen units she is not admitted until she can complete necessary extra work, even though she may be very desirable and have met the requirements in all other respects.

As soon as the first contact has been made with a possible applicant the preparatory school is supplied with the form known as the preliminary statement of preparation. There is a space on this form for a list of schools in which the preparatory work will be taken, with the time of entering and leaving each. Two questions are asked: whether the applicant will be graduated from the college preparatory course, and the probable date of graduation. The main part of the form calls for a statement of all the subjects the applicant expects to take during her preparatory course and offer for entrance credit. In addition to the usual information as to amount of time devoted to each subject the grade must be supplied for that part of each subject which has been completed when the statement is furnished. Particular attention is paid to the arrangement of the work of the third and fourth preparatory years, so that the preparation may be adequate and may make the best correlation with freshman subjects. The requirements as to amount of preparation and as to grades are absolutely insisted upon in the case of each applicant. The preliminary statement of preparation must be submitted before any report will be made upon the consideration that the application will receive. The insistence upon having this complete statement in the early years of the preparatory course has many advantages in addition to showing whether or not the preparation is going to be sufficient. The applicant is required to formulate a definite outline of her preparatory work; she is held to a plan at a time when she might be inclined to drift from one subject to another; she knows what is expected of her and what she will be held accountable for.

Supplementing this statement of academic work, the principal is asked to furnish a personal statement concerning the applicant. A form is provided for this purpose, with space for the principal to give his opinion of the applicant as a college preparatory student, to state whether he expects to be able to recommend her for admission to college, and whether she will be graduated from the college preparatory course of the school.

This preliminary correspondence and information is often sufficient to show that the applicant is not going to be able to meet the requirements or is not desirable, and is used as a basis for refusing to give the application further consideration. The way in which a girl has entered into the life and work of her secondary school is a fairly good indication of what can be expected of her when she becomes a college student. If grades for completed work are low the applicant is dropped at once, for if the earlier part of the preparation is weak she is not considered a good risk for college. If a principal expresses doubt as to his ability to recommend an applicant something is wrong and further information is necessary before the applicant can be encouraged to complete her preparation. An applicant who is not doing the type of work of which she is capable will be warned that she must improve the quality of her work during the remainder of the course.

Supplemental grade reports are secured from the school at the end of each year until the applicant has completed her preparation. In the doubtful cases grade reports are called for at the end of each term. Whenever the record of grades shows that the applicant is not keeping up the quality of her work, her application is dropped after due consultation with the principal. Applicants are dropped at any time during the preparatory course that the records show inability to meet the entrance standards. No applicant is permanently accepted until the preparatory course has been completed and the final record of grades, with the principal's recommendation and endorsement, has been received. Only those applicants are retained on the lists for whom there is every reason to believe satisfactory final credentials will be received. Those who are carried through to the close of the preparatory course have the assurance that they will be permanently accepted if they complete their preparation as planned, secure satisfactory grades, and merit the endorsement of the school authorities. Although no notifications of acceptance are sent out before the first of July, the applicants are not subjected to a period of great uncertainty and anxiety with the subsequent nervous tension and strain. As important as is the preparation of the applicant it is only one aspect of the preliminary consideration that must be given to her. Her personal qualifications must receive equal attention. It is not as easy to secure information in this regard, and the measure of standards is much more difficult to define. Each year greater effort is made to establish better methods of ascertaining the character, personality, and personal traits of the individual applicants.

In general, applicants may be put into two groups, those who come well introduced through connections with alumnae or former students or friends of the college, and those who are unknown to the college except through their application papers. It is this latter group that we endeavor to become as well acquainted with as possible.

Before any consideration can be given to an applicant, she must file her formal application for admission. This form covers the applicant's home address; her age; the name, titles, and occupation of the father or guardian; the colleges attended by the father and the mother; her religious affiliations;

her relation to any Goucher graduate or former student. Every one of these items is immediately and carefully noted, and correspondence is begun at once in regard to any irregularity. This application form in itself furnishes enough information to give some idea of the standing of the family and the home environment. In connection with the application four letters of personal endorsement are required, two of which must be from teachers, other than the principal, and two from responsible persons, not relatives, to whom the applicant is known. The teachers usually write of the applicant more intimately than the principal, and their letters tell of her special interests in class or club work and particularly of her attitude in the classroom. Many letters come from persons who have been associated with the applicant in school or community activities and show an earnest desire to interpret the girl as they have known her and are therefore of real value. For the most part the other letters are from friends of the applicant's parents and frequently reveal much that is helpful concerning family conditions, home life, and the social standing of the parents.¹ There has been a notable decrease in the number of letters from the pastors, who as a rule write only in the most complimentary terms and endorse without discrimination. Yet even these letters generally have some contribution to make, for it is of interest and of value to know the extent to which a girl has participated in the activities of her church.

It is usually at this point that the officer of admission takes the initiative in procuring further knowledge of the applicant. A student now in college who entered from the same preparatory school that the applicant is attending is interviewed. For this purpose a student is selected who is appreciative of the college standards. She is consequently responsive and helpful. If the applicant has indicated that she has any friends now in college, one of these is interviewed. Although the interviews are informal, so that information is freely given, these questions are always covered. How well do you know the applicant? Do you know what interested her in Goucher and why she wants to come here? Is she the type of girl who would fit into the life at Goucher and whom you would like to see here as a student? Has she a forceful personality and would she enter into the worthwhile activities of the student body? The type of the applicant can be fairly well estimated by learning who are her friends among the students or who interested her in Goucher. An alumna or former student living in the applicant's home town or teaching in her school may be written to for an opinion and an estimate of the worth of the applicant. It is our policy to select the alumna whose opinion is desired and to write directly to her rather than to require that one of the designated letters of recommendation be from an alumna. The results are far more satisfactory and reliable.

An effort is made to have a personal interview with as many of the applicants as possible, although the personal interview is not made a requirement for admission. An unusually large number of persons visit the college, due

¹ Testimonials that praise the applicant too highly or give her too impeccable a character tend to put the college authorities on their guard.

probably to the fact that Baltimore is so accessible to persons traveling through the east. On this account interviews at the college are, to a large extent, with parents. Although this contact does not give all that is needed to be known in regard to the personality of the girl, it does furnish a background for her and also affords an excellent opportunity to let the parents know something of the ideals and standards of the college and what is expected in the way of cooperation on the part of both parents and students. There is a contract-application that must be signed by both the applicant and her parent or guardian. This contract sets forth certain specific conditions under which the applicant is accepted by the college. The applicant and the person responsible for her while she is in college are made to realize that they will be held for the charges of the whole session and for the student's failure to observe all health, social, and academic regulations of the college. In the contract the statement is specifically made that the college reserves the right to ask a student to withdraw at any time on grounds of scholarship, health, or conduct, and that a student who is asked to withdraw is still held responsible for the full charges. While an interview with the parent does not take the place of one with the applicant, yet it has a value that should not be underestimated. The officer of admission visits secondary schools and confers with principals, college advisers, and applicants. A written account of each interview with applicant, parent, school officer, or anyone acquainted with the applicant is made a part of the applicant's record. In all interviews and conferences these are the questions to be answered: Has this applicant a serious purpose in her desire to go to college? What has interested her in Goucher College? Why has she selected Goucher rather than some other college? What has been her attitude to her school responsibilities? Has she the character that will enable her to develop self-control and good judgment when thrown on her own responsibility? Will she be a desirable member of the college community?

All of the foregoing has to do with the applicant while she is still completing her preparatory work. At the close of the course a form is sent to the principals calling for the final school record, recommendations, and endorsements. These items are given as follows:

School record—The record of yearly grades is given for each preparatory subject taken during the course. This record is one of the most important factors in determining the final acceptance of the applicant, as it shows the accomplishment year by year during the entire preparatory course.

The recommendation of the principal—"I hereby certify that the above applicant is a suitable person to be admitted to Goucher College. (By suitable person is meant a pupil who has shown the necessary scholastic qualifications, seriousness of purpose, and whose influences in the school community, on the whole, has been good.) I recommend her admission to Goucher College as a regular student on probation, due to ----- I recommend her admission to Goucher College only by examination, for the reason that ----- I decline to furnish any recommendation for the above applicant."

The academic standing—"Number in graduating class, rank of the applicant. Has she shown initiative, originality, or brilliancy? What intelligence test has she taken? The average score, the score of this applicant."

School activities—"What class offices has this applicant held? What offices in the general student government? To what extent has she participated in school activities, including literary and debating societies, dramatics, athletics, school publications?"

Confidential information—"Information in regard to *character* and *influence* is required in determining the admission of this applicant and in dealing wisely and justly with her after she has entered Goucher College. The principal is requested to give this information in the order indicated. Please give an estimate of the applicant's character and personality, noting her regard for duty, sense of honor, self-restraint, and conscientiousness, or lack of these. Please mention any unusual talent or individual traits she may possess. Please indicate the influence she has had in her school community, her regard for school authority, and her attitude toward recreation. If she at any time has been disciplined for conduct, please state the facts. Please give any other facts that should be known to the college authorities."

Granting that all preliminary credentials have been satisfactory, the data on the final record form become the determining factors in the final acceptance of the applicant. The unfavorable character of any one of these items may disqualify the applicant. A satisfactory academic record alone does not constitute eligibility for admission. If the confidential information furnished by the principal is unsatisfactory the applicant is refused admission, even though her name may have been on the list for several years. There must be the desirable personal qualifications as well as the fulfilling of the technical entrance requirements. No matter how high the school record may be, an applicant is refused admission if she is not given unqualified personal recommendations. On the other hand, an applicant with the highest social and personal endorsements will not be admitted if the preparation is not adequate. It is of little purpose to secure knowledge of an applicant unless this knowledge is used. Goucher College does not hesitate to refuse to admit an applicant whose record does not meet the entrance requirements or whose personal qualifications do not give every assurance that she will become a desirable member of the college community.

The admission of students on the basis of school records and recommendations necessitates an early contact with the applicant, very definite knowledge of the applicant as to her training and personality, and close cooperation with the secondary schools. With no entrance examinations as a final test of preparation, there must be constant watchfulness during the entire preparatory course and continual elimination of those who are falling below the set standards. This method of admission allows the applicant to prove her worth by her attitude to her daily obligations and by her accomplishment in her actual school work from year to year.

In considering what actual results are obtained in administering this method at Goucher College the first question that naturally arises is, to

what extent can the records and recommendations that are furnished by the school be relied upon. By sending the final record form direct to the principal of the school and refusing to accept it unless it is returned by him direct to the college, there is no doubt but that the school record thus obtained is a true and accurate account of the grades made by the applicant. There is every reason to believe that the principals are conscientious and honest in rating the applicant and in setting forth her attitude toward her school obligations. But they are honest according to the standards of their own particular school, and the real difficulty lies in the fact that the standards of the schools differ. It is therefore necessary to know the schools or to judge of their standards by reliable accrediting agencies. We do not obligate ourselves to accept the work of a school even though it may be accredited elsewhere, and we reserve the privilege of exercising our own judgment in determining the acceptance of work from any particular school. Goucher College has its own list of accredited schools, and no school is placed on this list until it has sent well prepared applicants who have made satisfactory records in freshman courses. Extreme caution and an extensive knowledge of secondary schools are necessary for a wise interpretation of school records. The privilege of recommending applicants for admission without examinations is withdrawn from a school when the records for the freshman year show that the preparation has been inadequate or that the student's ability has been misrepresented. In general our experience has led us to believe that the principals give a frank opinion of the applicant and their real estimate of her character, even though the facts may be detrimental to her. Some unfavorable comments taken from recent application files will show that the principals are cooperative. "Applicant will be recommended unless her unreliability should result in some conduct problem. Shows nervous instability." "Has been lacking in her regard for duty and sense of honor." "Too popular." "Her deportment was unsatisfactory." "Has broken regulations and not cooperated with school authorities, has not responded in the right way to privileges that were given to her." "Failed in self-restraint, was not conscientious about her work." "Did not regard school authority in the most favorable light, had to be reprimanded in the office a couple of times."

The elimination of applicants for admission to Goucher is very great. Only a comparatively small number of those interested in entering or making application are admitted. There were 1082 formal applications received for admission to the present session; of these 51 percent were refused, 15 percent were withdrawn voluntarily, 33 percent were accepted. In addition to those who filed applications there were some 400 who were discouraged from even making application. Personal knowledge of 70 percent of those who were admitted was gained through interviews and special inquiries.

It is too soon to make any statement as to the number of these new students now in college who will not be able to do satisfactory work. Last year 4.3 percent of the new students were dropped by the end of the year

on account of unsatisfactory scholarship. These students were all endorsed by their principals and stood well in their respective schools, but in several cases the preparation was known to be only fair, and more than half of them entered on probation. After considering the preparatory and college records and the personalities of these dropped students, a general grouping of the causes of failure would be: mediocre ability with insufficient training in proper study habits, lack of strength of character, of perseverance, and of application, and difficulty in making adjustments due to personal peculiarities. A study of 4.3 percent of the same group having the highest grades shows that in every case these students had been outstanding girls in the secondary schools, ranking first or among the first in scholarship. In a majority of the cases they had been the leaders in the school, holding class or student government offices and in the full participating in the activities of the school. The girl with limited experiences, meager background, undeveloped or undisciplined character, will in all probability find college work and life difficult, even though she may have stood well in her preparatory school. The Goucher College policy, therefore, means absolute insistence upon preparation that in amount and quality meets the entrance standard, a definite endeavor to determine the real character of the applicant, and an opportunity given to the satisfactory applicant to prove her ability and her worth.

INTELLIGENCE TESTS AS ONE BASIS OF ADMISSION TO COLLEGE

HERBERT E. HAWKES, DEAN OF COLUMBIA COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK CITY

This is an age of machinery when human processes are replaced as far as possible by mechanical devices. Rapidity, interchangeable parts, and standardized processes are the goals of the manufacturer nowadays. The analogy with our educational procedure is not very close, but near enough to be suggestive. In selecting boys for admission to college the old method of handpicking the boys through a conference with the president is certainly an illustration of piecework. Now we must use machinery even though the results may not be as sensitively adjusted to the work that we are doing as the method of exclusive human contact.

The aim of our tests and examinations is to isolate the various qualities which we desire to estimate. For example, the old type content examination affords a result which measures with considerable inaccuracy the complex consisting of native ability, ambition, industry, good teaching, and various other items. If a college is interested in knowing whether its candidates pass the content examinations largely because of native ability, rather than because of the qualities of character just enumerated, it is clear that a psychological examination will admirably serve the purpose, for such an examination certainly isolates the native ability so that it is possible to determine whether the candidates who present the same level of entrance work do so

because of high ability and poor application, or low ability coupled with unusual application, or possibly a mediocre supply of both.

No person in his senses would think of using the psychological examination as the only criterion for admission to college. The school record, content examinations, and every means must be used to test the qualities that the psychological examination does not touch. Consequently the correlation between the psychological examination and college accomplishment may not be so very high, provided the psychological examination is used intelligently, that is to say, provided the information gained through other means is given proper weight so that a person with a low psychological examination may, on account of high accomplishment in other directions, seem to be a good candidate for admission.

THE PERSONAL INTERVIEW AS ONE BASIS FOR ADMISSION TO COLLEGE

RAYMOND WALTERS, DEAN OF SWARTHMORE COLLEGE, SWARTHMORE, PA.

It seems to me impossible to obtain a proportional sense of my subject today, "The Personal Interview as one Basis for Admission to College," without some preliminary comment upon the whole problem of college entrance. I shall try to avoid in this comment a mere repetition of what the preceding speakers have so well set forth. Some review I regard necessary, for only thus can I indicate how relatively restricted is the application of the personal interview method and at the same time emphasize how useful the method may be for the small college or for the individual school of large universities. After four years of experience with the method at Swarthmore, where we have developed it concomitantly with our honors courses, we submit it as a modest contribution to educational technic in the hope that others having similar problems may find it similarly helpful.

The general situation—A study of 1925-26 registration statistics by the present speaker (*School and Society*, Jan. 23, 1926) shows that, in 159 colleges and universities on the approved list of the Association of American Universities, there is a 7 percent increase this year over 1924-25. In 29 typical universities the increase in the past five years was 18 percent.

Facing the problem of accommodation which this expansion has brought, it is amusing to remember that twenty years ago, even ten years ago, there wasn't any problem. No college then had applicants greatly in excess of its facilities; many colleges used to have peripatetic philosophers who visited high schools and academies to suggest, by talks and lantern views, how salubrious the climate, how scholarly the professors, how impressive the buildings and campus at their particular abodes of light and learning. Gone now is the need for soliciting of this sort. With the still greater expansion of high school attendance the college supply of the future is bound to tax the college capacity to care properly for it.

In a country of 110 million people, spread over a continent of varied climate, soil, and economic condition, there are logically diverse types of colleges and universities. Logically also there are diverse admission pro-

cedures to these varying colleges and universities. To trace how they have developed historically would be interesting, but would exceed the scope of this paper.

Present Methods of Admission to College and University

1. *The examination route*—There are now approximately 200,000 freshmen in the 700-odd American colleges and universities listed by the U. S. Bureau of Education. Of these probably 2500 young men and 2000 young women enter exclusively by examinations. Examinations are absolutely required by three men's colleges and five women's colleges, all in the east. Certain colleges call for examinations in individual cases. The total number of freshmen meeting all or part of their entrance credits by examination of the College Entrance Examination Board is now about 10,000.

2. *The certificate basis*—It will thus be seen that 95 percent of the freshmen in American Colleges are admitted, so far as their scholastic work is concerned, upon the basis of their grades attained in high schools and independent schools and the endorsement of their school principals.

Without exception the graduate schools of the universities waive examinations and accept from approved colleges holders of the bachelor's degree, deciding which candidates to admit upon the merit of their college records and the endorsement of college teachers and administrators.

3. *Psychological tests*—Psychological tests, as developed since the war, have been found useful in measuring classroom intelligence and are now employed by many colleges as a part of their admission procedure. No institution, so far as I can learn, makes psychological tests the sole basis of entrance. At Swarthmore we give psychological tests to freshmen after admission; we are accumulating data to judge as to the wisdom of required tests in the future.

4. *Character and personality reports*—Character credentials are now demanded by many colleges and a number require additional information as to general qualifications. At Swarthmore we worked out, three years ago, a personal rating scale which has proved effective in obtaining from school principals, teachers, and other persons valuable information about the candidate. In a small coeducational college of Quaker founding and traditions it has been exceedingly important to be as careful in regard to character as in regard to scholarship. Being careful has made it possible to maintain a college family where the code of the men is not to drink and the code of the girls is not to smoke.

This scale, which is printed on the reverse side of the school report blank, is called for after the candidate has covered three years or three and one-half years of preparatory study. Principals tell us that they appreciate the convenience of checking on a scale, thus presenting without omissions more material in a small space and in a few minutes than much writing would ordinarily supply. Additional comments are welcomed. Knowing that the information is confidential, principals and teachers have in general been candid in their quality ratings.

5. *The personal interview method*—Swarthmore College is a member of the College Entrance Examination Board and we believe that, where candi-

dates have attended schools which prepare for the board examinations, they are a valuable test of scholastic ability and training. The large proportion of our students, however, enter upon certificate from secondary schools whose work we know. As a rule we refuse to consider candidates who rank lower than the highest fourth of their graduating class.

Then, to make our process genuinely selective, we apply our personal interview method. With four times as many men and seven times as many girls applying as we can accept, it is not possible to interview all candidates. Those whose school records place them in the highest group are invited to call at Swarthmore during their senior year at school. Members of our admission committee conduct a series of interviews at New York, Washington, and other places. When candidates live at considerable distances we arrange for interviews with alumni of Swarthmore living in those sections, and when this cannot be done we seek the help of other college alumni.

It is our invariable rule that no candidate is admitted without an interview with members of our faculty admissions committee or some representative of the college.

Just what is our aim? Well, our chief aim is to discover what is ordinarily not revealed by the written examination, the school certificate, the psychological test: I mean the aspiration of the candidate toward the intellectual life, his concern for spiritual values. It is just this aspiration and this concern which would border on priggishness for a young person to write about in an examination paper or a letter of application. It is hazardous even to talk about them. The main test of us as interviewers is the measure in which we can sense these things as we see and hear these youths and maidens.

Another aim of these interviews is to find out how well the candidates know what they know best—not to discover gaps.

Robert Louis Stevenson declared that the first tool in the kit of the writer is sympathy. This is doubly true of an interviewer under this method. To make the candidate feel at home, to establish an atmosphere of friendliness is the initial requisite. I know of no other way to accomplish this than sincerely and eagerly to desire friendliness and not to be afraid to show it. Once get the candidate talking about his affairs, school activities, the studies he likes and doesn't like, and why—and you are making real progress in this delicate work.

Of course we prefer modesty and reserve to forwardness and too much glibness. Sometimes candidates, girls particularly, think they haven't made a favorable impression on this score, when they most decidedly have.

But we do look for enthusiasm. We want our students to be keen about something. If the enthusiasm is all for dances and social climbing that is useful to learn. As a somewhat literary person myself, I am careful not to measure all candidates by the literary yardstick. After my own questioning I sometimes arrange for talks by candidates interested in mathematics, astronomy, chemistry, and other branches with professors of those subjects.

In our search for intellectual enthusiasm and the genuine spirit of service, we find the reading candidates have done or haven't done to be a valuable index. We make allowances for background and lack of guidance. For a girl to say she adores Gene Stratton Porter and Harold Bell Wright is not fatal, if we ascertain that she has been surrounded all her life by third rate influences. The difficulty is that we do not feel justified in taking such applicants when we have many of equal mental caliber who already have done good fundamental reading and who have a sense of values.

May I call to your attention several sentences from the recent annual report of President Aydelotte to the Swarthmore board of managers:

Students who come from homes in which the talk is about books enter college well read. Those who come from homes in which the talk is confined to the superficial routine of the day are much less likely to have learned to read for themselves or to possess any definitely intellectual interests or ambition. That handicap may be overcome only by extraordinary effort in college and in after life.

But though, in general, we are not satisfied with the reading our candidates have done, we find splendid exceptions, where parents and teachers have clearly worked to counteract present-day distractions and where the candidates have a discriminating sense of values based on the reading of many books.

We are on the alert constantly for signs of exceptional capacity and occasionally we experience the joy of discovery. Imagine the satisfaction of talking with a youth whose enthusiasm about surgery had led an eminent Philadelphia surgeon to permit him to witness his operations, whose eagerness caused a physician to bequeath him a medical library of 600 books, and who won a state-wide prize for an essay in the contest of the American Chemical Society. Consider our pleasure in chatting with a girl from a small Pennsylvania city who showed she really knew Shelley and Keats and Rupert Brooke and who timidly said, when I asked her whether she tried verse herself, that she had just had five poems accepted by the *Magazine World*, the new journal of the Atlantic Monthly Company.

In our interviews we inquire about the probable major subject in college and the candidate's present thought as to a later career. Realizing how uncertain such choices often are, we don't place too much stress upon the matter of a career. Indeed we feel the need here of being of more service than we now are, and welcome the study which a committee of university professors are taking up, with Dean Hawkes of Columbia as chairman, to develop scientific methods of guiding college students in their choice of a vocation.

Reasons for choice of college—Experience has taught us that it is essential to talk with a candidate alone. We are glad to see parents and friends later. To have them present at an interview is embarrassing to the candidate, and is unsatisfactory for other reasons.

It is a part of our procedure to make it clear that, in the phrase of the magazine editors, rejection does not imply lack of merit. This really is true at Swarthmore. Our limitation of numbers to approximately 500

students—250 men and 250 women—compels us to say no each year to 500 or 600 girls and half as many men applicants. To enable those we can't admit to make other plans, we try to have records in and interviews arranged so as to give a decision early in the spring.

As our official statement sets forth, preference is given to candidates who are children of members of the Society of Friends and of Alumni of the college provided their school records meet in all respects the standard set by the college for admission. These two elements combined do not constitute more than a fourth of our student body at present. A candidate who has been on our application list for many years (we now have applications for 1940, 1941, and 1942) is given a place as compared with a recent candidate of equal qualifications. A reasonably wide geographical distribution of students is likewise sought, in order to prevent provincialism.

I have dwelt upon the advantages of the personal interview method. What about its disadvantages, dangers, limitations?

The disadvantages lie in the tedious and arduous work it imposes upon the faculty members who serve as interviewers. There are compensations, however.

The dangers are the real dangers of subjective judgment as compared with objective results in written examinations, psychological tests, and school records. The way to minimize the dangers is to have each candidate interviewed by several persons as we do at Swarthmore and to use the interview along with other evidences.

The limitations are the impracticability of interviewing several thousand candidates, as would be necessary in large institutions.

For small colleges and especially, it seems to me, for professional schools of medicine and law in the universities, the interview method is of real value. It is simply carrying into the academic world a method universally used in final selections for positions of responsibility in the professional, the scientific, and the business world.

THE HIGH SCHOOL DEAN—HER VARIED OPPORTUNITY FOR SERVICE

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The individuality of the pupil can be respected and cared for even in mass instruction—To see that no student loses his identity in a student body of hundreds or even thousands is the high school dean's first responsibility. The dean and her assistants must know each student as an individual—not merely his name, but his abilities, his accomplishments, his home environment, his associates, facts about his health, his strong points, his weaknesses, his interest, and his ambitions. Knowing all this, how can the dean help each student to get the most out of school and to make the most of himself? The dean uses no textbook, but her teaching is the most difficult of all the lessons taught in our high schools and colleges—namely the development of right attitudes and ideals.

Business houses find it profitable to employ directors of personnel to meet the individual problems of their employees. If grown men and women need such assistance, how much more do high school boys and girls need guidance, and the help that comes from knowing that someone is personally interested in them and that this person's specific job is helping individual students solve their particular problems.

How can schools be administered to fit individual needs of pupils?—

From the time the student is considering registering in high school, he needs the help of the dean's or the school counselor's office. Invariably he is faced with these questions: What course shall I take? What are the matriculation requirements for college? What electives shall I take this term? A daily schedule of classes in any one of our great cosmopolitan high schools is like a great educational cafeteria with so many educational viands set forth, that the incoming freshman needs guidance in the selection of a well-balanced menu. A school counseling program which provides for the sending of students' records from the elementary to the junior high schools and from the junior high schools to the senior high schools in advance of the students' arrival gives the dean or counselor a basis for sectioning pupils into groups where they can work most advantageously. The need for grouping high school students is apparent when the measurement of such factors as age, height, weight, previous accomplishment, and mental capacity as measured by mental tests show variations such as these recently discovered in a large western high school. The ages of 500 incoming senior high school students varied from 13 years to 19 years; in weight these pupils varied from 70 pounds to 170 pounds; in height from 4 ft. 8 in. to 6 ft. 2 in.; in previous accomplishment from three units of school work all barely passing to seven units of school work, all of grade "excellent"; and in mental capacity these students, all ranking as low tenth grades, varied from 69 I. Q. to 143 I. Q. To put all of these students in classes of the same type and to expect the same degree of accomplishment is rank injustice.

Pupil guidance based on facts rather than well-intentioned conjecture—

High school work must be differentiated to fit the individual needs of pupils. By cooperating with the lower schools the dean or school counselor usually has opportunity to visit the lower schools, to meet prospective high school students, to secure in advance the list of subjects which each incoming student wishes to pursue during his first term in high school. With this list of subjects, and each pupil's "case history," showing the age, physical development, health, previous scholastic accomplishment, former teachers' estimates of pupil's ability and industry, and records of subject-matter and mental tests, the dean or school counselor is able to plan each pupil's program in advance. When he comes to the high schools he finds himself in a physical education class with pupils of the same or nearly the same size and degree of physical maturity as himself; he finds himself in an English class with pupils who can make approximately the same progress as he can. He is not discouraged by continually being outstripped by students of far superior capacity; neither is he allowed to develop habits of

laziness by working in a group which he can always outshine with little or no effort.

Cumulative "case histories" of individual pupils are the only sane basis for programming students. Even on this basis, some mistakes will be made. All maladjustments in classroom work reported by individual teachers should be carefully checked up by the dean or school counselor, and adjustments made which are fair both to the individual pupil and to the school as a whole.

Cumulative case histories form the bases for constructive administrative policies—To encourage individual pupils who are failing in scholarship to do better work is commendable. It is an essential part of the high school dean's work. To discover the real causes of student's failures is far more commendable. Are these failures due to poor preparation, lack of effort, ill health, lack of interest (and the cause lying back of this), low intelligence, too difficult a course of study, or poor teaching? The result of the case studies of pupils' scholarship failure should enable the dean to make definite recommendations as to administrative policies at the end of each semester as to how these failures could be prevented in the future. To meet individual difficulties and not keep track of the number of them and the causes back of them, and study ways and means of preventing them is only doing a fraction of the dean's job. Too often it means that only palliative measures are being carried out. Educational diagnosis should in time result in prevention of educational ills. In time we may even hope to build courses of study to fit the capacities, interests, environment, and growth needs of children as well as adult social needs.

The dean an educational diagnostician—In addition to the sectioning and programming of students, the prevention of scholarship failures, and the study and analysis of the causes of these failures when they occur, these are among the problems which constantly face the high school dean: How can the needs of individual pupils be discovered, not merely scholarship needs, but health needs, social needs, weaknesses in character, employment needs, etc.? It is not merely the mind of the boy or girl that comes to school and needs development—it is the whole child that comes—and an all around development must be achieved. How can maladjustments be foreseen and prevented? How can innate capacity be discovered and developed? The practical answer to all of these questions is a "case study" of each individual pupil. The more complete the study is, the more accurate will be the dean's diagnosis of the pupil's difficulties and the more applicable will be the plans which she makes for each pupil. Too often only glaring instances of maladjustment which seriously effect the welfare of the school come to the dean's attention. In reality every pupil is maladjusted who is not getting out of high school all that he is capable of getting. How often on commencement night as the graduates are passing off the stage the dean's thought is: "How I wish that the school could have done more for that particular girl!" If a case study diagnosing her needs had been made when she first entered high school—and consistent effort had been made during

the four years of the high school course to meet the needs discovered—a different personality with talents more completely developed might have resulted.

Attitudes and ideals are caught more often than they are taught—The dean comes in closer contact with pupils than any other administrative officer. The spirit with which she does her work—the unconscious overflow and outflow of her personality, determines in a large way the spirit of the school. From the first day when the dean helps the incoming student register and explains the opportunities of the school, she is helping to form the pupil's attitudes and ideals. That dean has taught a lesson that carries on indefinitely, who at the end of a busy week of registration greets with a smile of welcome the last pupil to register, and makes him feel that his welfare is her chief and one concern. Often his loyalty to the school and its ideals begins at that moment. The parent who visits the school and finds that the dean already knows his child and at least partially understands his particular difficulty and is eager to understand it more completely, that the dean sympathizes but offers constructive suggestions rather than merely emotion—a parent after meeting such a dean comes to have respect and confidence in the school administration that results in mutual benefit.

The social life of the school an educative force—A recent survey¹ of what 229 school systems are doing to promote character education brought out the fact that in the opinion of school superintendents extra-curricular activities were a tremendous force in the development of character. These ten traits ranked in order of importance as to the character education outcomes were listed by superintendents of schools: Courtesy, honesty, co-operation, loyalty, conformity, responsibility, justice, industry, independence, and service. Among the pupil activities other than classroom listed as contributing to character development were the following: Club activities, physical education activities, school control activities, school assemblies activities involving individual pupil responsibilities, social activities, welfare activities, and journalistic, and forensic activities.

The dean usually has a large share in formulating the policies relative to the extra-curricular program of the high school and in seeing that it is sufficiently varied so that every pupil takes part in it. The school's social program can be made to contribute as directly to the pupil's education as can a course in mathematics or English. It can develop attitudes as to social relationships which later crystallize into ideals as to conduct. It can train for leisure by creating permanent interests in wholesome recreation. Fortunately, we are learning that the social life of the school in order to be wholesome need not be tiresome.

Education through friendship—The dean above all others on the high school faculty should have the character which draws students into the stream of her own great endeavor, whose influence over them should liber-

¹ See Chapter XIV, *Fourth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence*.

ate the best forces in them, and guide them in the most difficult enterprises, the conduct of life.

Friendship is more than a happy emotion. In its finest sense, it is a constant challenge to better living.

George A. Gordon has pointed out that: "The great friend is first of all a standard to which we look, and by which we measure ourselves, a standard for character, aim, and passionate desire. The great friend is the great educator."

Doctor Gordon in writing on the subject, *Education Through Friendship*, said this of his three teachers, George H. Palmer, William James, William Watson Goodwin: "I had their sympathy but I had something better, their judgment upon the doings of my mind and spirit, unconsciously rendered, perhaps, but forever there, and this was the highest service which these great friends did or could do for me."

Each of us can think of some great personal friend whose influence upon us silently, invariably, unalterably has been that we must strive, in the best sense, to do our best, and thus to justify our friend's great confidence in us.

Every high school dean has had the joy of believing in a student, letting him know that she believed in him and thus helping him to overcome possible indifferences at home, or temperamental difficulties until finally he was able to establish inner controls and achieve success.

The high school dean's opportunity for service is not only varied, it has no limit except the limitations of the dean, herself. The job is as big as the deans are able to make it.

DEAN TO DEAN

HERBERT E. HAWKES, DEAN OF COLUMBIA COLLEGE, COLUMBIA
UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK CITY

It seems to me exceedingly appropriate that a paper like the one to which we have just listened should be read before this audience. Thirty years ago we were told that art could not be taught; it might be lived, but it could not be taught. Today we are learning better. And, I believe that one of the great movements in our college education in coming years will be to realize that not only do we have the responsibility for educating the logical faculties and the cold intellects of our students, but, their emotional life as well, and that the emotional life includes not merely the artistic field concerning which we have heard this afternoon, but also the religious life.

I do not propose to give a formal paper this afternoon, for we are all deans together, and I wish to speak quite simply and informally about the dean's function.

There is no such a thing as the genus "Dean." There is dean of this and dean of that, dean here and dean there, but there is no such a thing as a "Dean." Often deans who are supposed to do the same kind of work, must necessarily approach their duty from quite a different angle.

For instance, in so trivial an item as that of smoking. I am sure that the dean of Bryn Mawr would approach her problem from a certain point of view; they may smoke at Bryn Mawr; and, judging from what Dean Wallis told us this morning, the dean at Swarthmore would approach her duty from another angle; they don't smoke at Swarthmore. I am certain, however, that the dean of women in the newly organized Duke University would require smoking of all their under-graduates. Consequently, it is hopeless for us to attempt to find a ground that is entirely common. What I want to do, then, in the time at my disposal, is in a very simple and informal and, probably homely way, to lay before you the results of certain experiences that I have had sitting in the dean's office in conference with young men. Some of these problems, I suppose, are quite distinct from those that you deal with as deans of women, but on the other hand, I imagine that some of the angles of approach must be similar.

In the first place, let me say that the college of about 2000 young men over which I happen to preside, is an urban institution, and, as many of you probably know, an urban institution has pretty much of everything except urbanity. That is one of the desiderata which we are seeking to overcome.

I want specifically to mention a certain point of view which, during the last six or eight years, has become increasingly convincing to me. Stated in one sentence it is this:

If one is to do one's full duty to the students that are under one's charge, one cannot work by rule.

I can illustrate by the problem of discipline. In Columbia College, there is no committee on discipline. All discipline is administered through the dean's office. There is no appeal or report to the faculty regarding discipline. That is a happy situation because I have known other institutions where discipline did come before the faculty and, in my humble judgment, there is nobody on the face of the earth so unfitted to exercise discipline as a college faculty. Consequently, the mistakes and the successes are all concentrated in the dean's office. The advantage of this way of doing things is perhaps more clearly seen by the dean than anybody else, but at any rate, the method affords a certain benefit, which, it seems to me, is very important indeed. I can illustrate what I mean, more definitely perhaps, and more clearly, if I refer to one particular type of discipline. We will take up the ugly case of cheating in examinations. Now, every instructor in college is urged to bring the facts, merely the facts, regarding any case of alleged cheating to the dean's office, with such documents, or evidence as may have come to his attention. He does not consider himself in any sense the officer of discipline, but simply refers the facts to the dean's office. The advantage of that procedure is two-fold. In the first place, it separates the function of teacher and specialist in a certain field of scholarship from that of disciplinarian, and,

in the second place, it does not place the discipline in the hands of a hundred different individuals who treat the same cases in various ways, according to their temperament, or their point of view.

Now, the young man comes to the office for an interview. We make a ruling on the merits of each case instead of following in a slavish manner a rule. It seems to me to be the height of folly to say that if a student cheats he is automatically out of college. Such a position turns one's back on the perfectly obvious fact that we are all poor sinners; a fact that each one of us knows in his own heart. Now, these cases fall into three classes and it is rather surprising that there are as many individuals in certain of these classes as it turned out to be the case.

In the first place, there is the boy who has never had a moral awakening. In regard to a question of this kind of dishonesty, he has never thought the thing through. He has floated along more or less like a cork on the water and been wafted this way and that, without ever having had the matter brought to his attention. He has not had what I like to call a moral awakening on that point.

Then, there is the boy who is subjected to a temptation to which he gives way impulsively. The act does not represent his better self, it represents his very worst, and he himself is just as humiliated and sorry for his error as anybody could be for him.

In the third place, there is the boy who is naturally dishonest and who will get away with anything that he can at any time. If a boy is essentially dishonest, it seems to me that he ought to go. The college is too busy to entertain such a student any longer. But, in the other two cases, where the youth gives way to a sudden impulse, and where he has not had a moral awakening, it seems to me that a rule which automatically forces a young man out of college is an improper and inhuman rule. If you and I had always been taken at our worst, can you imagine where most of us would be at the present moment?

Boys of the first two types must be labored with, they must get a moral awakening, and they must realize the fact that, on one occasion, at any rate, they were not strong enough to do the right thing.

A very effective means of bringing this about is to make a memorandum of the entire incident from start to finish, and read it to the young man. This I always do. I tell him that the memorandum is being placed in my files with his permanent papers and that, when I am asked for a recommendation for him, I shall use my judgment about using the information on the memorandum. I shall always see it when I look at his papers and, if any similar lapse occurs later on in the course, I shall assume that I have given him more confidence than he deserves and he will be expected to go out without argument. This has proved to be a very effective and sharp remedy, and there are few second offenses. It is very interesting to observe that if a mistake of this kind takes place in the freshman year, the chances are ten to one that in his senior year,

along about a month before he is due to graduate, the young man comes to the office and stands first on one foot, and then on the other, and presently says, "Now, Dean, do you remember that little incident that took place in my first year with Mr. So and So in History? You made a memorandum of it, didn't you?"

"Yes."

"What are you going to do with the memorandum?"

"Well, it is in your folder where it was put at that time."

"Why can't you give it to me? I have played the game, and I have played it squarely, ever since, and, I have thanked God again and again that I was found out in my freshman year since it has saved me from yielding to temptation many times since then. I am about to graduate, and I do not want to go out with that memorandum in my folder. I want to ask you if you will let me have it."

Now, when a boy comes across like that, you almost have to give him the memorandum, and I frequently do, to the great satisfaction of the youth.

Now, a few words about another type of academic problem: the poor student. I do not mean poor in purse, but the student whose academic work is unsatisfactory.

If the work of the department of admission is well done—and it is fairly well done in most of our institutions—then the fact that a boy is admitted to college, probably means that he has the ability to go through. In my judgment, the admission of a boy or a girl to college, imposes a solemn obligation on the part of the college to do its best in making a man or a woman of that boy or girl. It does not mean that the first opportunity should be taken to eliminate him, it means that an obligation runs both ways. Not only is the student under obligation to do his work faithfully, but the college is under obligation to do its level best in bringing out the finest that is in the student.

Now, if this is true, there is an implication which is not always recognized and still less frequently followed. It is very common to have a rule that if a student fails in a certain number of courses, regardless of the reason for that failure, the student is out. Now, in my judgment, this is immoral!

If the college has a solemn obligation to make the most of that young man, then it has a sacred obligation to go to the bottom of the reason for his failure. The fact that he is in college means that he has the ability to go through, and, right at that point is where the function of a dean comes in. Time and time again, a boy whose academic standing is unsatisfactory, turns out to be suffering from adenoids, or one of the many ailments that can lower one's vitality. Such a situation merely needs a little intelligence to locate the physical difficulty and if it is remedial, to insist upon conditions being remedied; if it is not remedial, to admit that a mistake might have been made in the physical examination, on the basis of which the boy was admitted to college. Perhaps the

financial situation is causing the trouble. In that case, if the boy has to earn so much money to pay his college expenses that he cannot do his college work well, he ought to drop out for a while in order to get a little ahead in a financial way, rather than be continuously embarrassed.

Frequently, a boy is just plain lazy. That, we all recognize and have to meet as best we can.

Often, they do not know how to study. This is a situation which requires the utmost patience and care. Just because a boy has good intelligence and is admitted to college does not necessarily imply that he knows how to study subjects of the complexity that the college program presents. If a bright boy, he is frequently able to pull himself through preparatory school on his keenness, but as he goes to college and the studies become more complicated, he reaches a natural boundary where his keenness will not carry him through, and he has to do some real solid work in order to gain success. Boys have to learn this fact, and often must be shown how to get from a printed page, the material that is on it.

There are also boys who are so mixed up in college activities that they do not give proper attention to their studies. Did you ever imagine that one reason why so many go out for athletics or dramatics and other student activities is because those things are frequently better done than some of us are doing our academic work and, that the young people are attracted by a good job.

I do not know whether it is true of young ladies or not, but with boys I have found out much to my surprise, that falling in love sometimes has something to do with academic success. I mentioned, in passing, in a recent report the fact that things of this kind sometimes effect academic standing. My office was full of reports for a week following the publication of this report, all concentrating on that one phrase, and, quite a bit of publicity followed. Since that time, I have found out, much to my surprise that the boys have been very much more ready to discuss those matters with me than they were before. I do not believe in throwing a boy out of college for any one of these remediable difficulties, nor do I believe in sending him off to some other institution which does not know him as well as we do. It seems to me, that we are bound to "burn our own smoke." But, if we all do burn our own smoke—we cannot burn other people's smoke, for if we did, we would do nothing but burn smoke.

Sometimes with boys, a year more or less, at hard labor, is very useful. I was very much amused last fall to have a boy call at my office whom I had not seen for nearly a year. At that time he was doing no work at all and his head was completely turned by extra-curricular activities. He could not be brought down to earth. He was told to go out to work and to do something hard, something like working on a railroad, or laying bricks, where he would be compelled to be on the job from the time the whistle blew in the morning to the end of the day. I told him that if he took such a job he might come back in the fall, and I would discuss the matter

of admission with him. He came back after a year's absence looking like a different person. His eye was bright, he stood up straight, and he looked like a man. I recognized him, and asked him what he had been doing since I had seen him last. He answered, "Why, sir, I have done exactly what you told me to do. I went out and got a job laying bricks, I joined the Union and am getting \$14 a day, but I want to come back to college." In cases of that kind, work is the salvation of the boy, and also helps the system.

Now, the whole function of the American college, the relation of that function to the curriculum is something which seems to me very desirable to think through. Not all institutions are alike. Some questions are local and some of them are general. But, there are one or two fundamental facts which we cannot get around. I do not know whether this is a physiological fact for young women or not, but I am sure it does hold for young men, that the time when the boy's intellectuality matures comes a general thing along in the middle of his college course. He is a boy when he enters college and he is much more nearly a man when he graduates.

On the continent, they arrange things differently, and the boy is engaged for a much longer time in his preparatory work so that the passing from the preparatory work to the university synchronizes fairly well with the natural maturing process. But, with us, as a general thing, maturity comes in the middle of our college course. I think that the problem indicates the necessity of an adjustment of curriculum in which all of us as deans must necessarily be interested. It involves a point of view which we must all take toward the relation between the first part of the college course and the last part which is very fundamental. In the first part of the course the main object must be to orient the boy and to introduce him into the world of ideas, to learn him, to teach him as well as we can, but chiefly to learn him. Doctor Wood of the faculty in Columbia College remarked to me the other day that if 25 percent of the time of our college teachers was spent in learning their students, the other 75 percent which they spend in teaching them would be ten times more effective. The time when we should learn our students is in the first two years. We should find out what kind of people they are, and attempt to determine their interests and trends.

Then, during the last two years with this understanding that is certain to be required, the educational material that is worthwhile seeking for each individual can be provided, so that the completion of the course may stand not merely for a college degree, but for discovering and cultivating the mind of each.

This whole problem of personnel work, to learn our individuals, reaches down to a very fundamental point in our whole system of American collegiate education. We frequently look to England as the country where gentlemen of culture are bred. What has done it? In Oxford and in Cambridge, which are the homes where these wonderful English gentle-

men have been trained, they have their residence halls, and they have their dining halls, and, what is more, they have their tutors. Now, that is education brought to the individual, that is individualized education. That I believe is the reason why it has been successful. The students learn to know themselves in their dormitories, in their dining halls, and through their tutors, and are treated as individuals and by this process have come to a finer flower of individual achievement than the gentlemen of any other nation.

But, in this country we cannot do things in just that way. It may be that one or two institutions can introduce the English tutorial system and carry it through, but there are two reasons why that system cannot be introduced into this country in any extensive manner. The first reason is because it would cost so much that there is not enough money in the world to pay for all of the tutors that would be required to teach all of the under-graduate students in our colleges and, in the second place, if that money existed the tutors do not. Can you imagine anything more dismal than to be assigned to a tutor who was the kind of a person that most of these tutors would be? It would be perfectly hopeless.

Consequently, we cannot solve the problem by that means. But, we are attacking exactly the same problem of individual education that the English have solved in their Oxford and their Cambridge, through the work that this body stands for. And if the vision of the deans of men and the deans of women which is indicated by recent studies and the researches, comes to the fruition, in time and in our own way, we can turn out a body of men and women that are comparable with those that have been developed through hundreds of years by the English system. We must, however, do it by our own method. It seems to me that this vision is one which places the function of the dean of men and the dean of women in an absolutely central position in our scheme of education.

If we continue to do our job as well as we have begun to do it in the last few years I believe that we can in time approximate the results of the finest education that has ever been known in the world.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Monday, February 22, 1926

The Department of Deans of Women (National Association of Deans of Women) convened in annual meeting on Monday afternoon, February twenty-second, at two o'clock, in the theater of the Wardman Park Hotel. The president, Florence Purington, opened the session with greetings.

Announcements were made by the chairman of the Local Committee, Anna L. Rose, and the Secretary.

The minutes of the meetings of the executive committee in Cincinnati, February 28, 1925; in Buffalo, September 4, 1925, and in Washington, February 22, 1926 were read and accepted.

Anna E. Pierce presented the report of the treasurer. It was moved by Miss Richards, seconded and voted, that the report be accepted and placed on file.

Dean Blitz moved that the recommendation of the executive committee for the appointment of a Committee on Revision of the Bylaws be adopted. The motion was seconded by Miss Stimson and was carried.

It was moved by Winifred J. Robinson, Women's College, University of Delaware, seconded by Miss Amos and voted, that the proposed amendment to the By laws providing for the creation of a standing Committee on Qualifications and Preparation for the Work of Deans be referred to the special Committee on the Revision of the Bylaws.

Miss Ross moved that the president appoint a committee to investigate the possibility of securing headquarters at the National Headquarters of the American Association of University Women and of the employment of a part time secretary. The motion was seconded by Miss Kerr and carried.

Resolution providing for committee to raise funds for 1927. All year work on the Association's national issues—In pursuance of the action taken by the executive committee at its September, 1925, meeting with reference to securing funds to defray the expenses of a central office, the treasurer explained that an estimate had been made of the expense for the present year of carrying on throughout the year the work begun by the four committees entrusted with the prosecution of the association's national activities and that it appeared that the amount required beyond what would be available from regular sources will be about \$7000. Moved by Miss Pierce and seconded by Miss Newman and carried, that a committee of four consisting of the president, the secretary and Mrs. Ellis L. Phillips, a former president of the association, be and they are hereby appointed and authorized to raise a special fund of \$7000 or more with which to carry on the national issues of the association for the year of 1926-27 with full power in the premises including the power of adding others to the committee, either members or non-members of the association.

Evelyn Butler, chairman of the Committee on Luncheon for Deans at the Indianapolis meeting of the National Education Association, submitted the following report:

Madam Chairman, Friends—I have the honor to submit the report of the luncheon meeting of the National Association of Deans of Women, June 29th, 1925. During the National Education Association Convention in Indianapolis last June one of the memorable features was the luncheon on June 29th when about sixty deans of women who were in attendance at the National Education Association gathered in the Florentine room of the Claypool Hotel for a noon meeting. We had as our guests on this occasion William Lowe Bryan, president of Indiana University, and Robert Judson Aley, president of Butler College. After a short welcome to the city to visiting deans from your local chairman on arrangements, Martha Doan, secretary of the state association of deans of women, extended the greetings of the state association to visiting deans and their guests. The program consisted of three addresses. The committee had worded the topics assigned to Doctor Bryan and Doctor Aley with the intention of allowing them to treat their subjects jocularly but they did not take advantage of the chance to escape from their customary responsibility of serious discussion. Doctor Bryan, whose topic was "Why Is a Dean," gave a convincing address in which he gave as the four chief causes for appointments of deans, first, the necessity of safeguarding young women under present day conditions; second, the fact that the home has practically in large part surrendered its responsibility to the school; third, the present day state of unrest among our young people; and lastly the student conditions in recent years that makes leadership a necessity. Doctor Bryan closed his remarks by saying that the function of a dean of women is to reconcile the struggle between those who would hold youth to outworn conventions and those who in the name of liberty mistakenly were urging young people to abandon convention proved wise by the experience of centuries.

Doctor Aley was the next speaker. His subject was, "If I were a Dean of Women" and in the course of his address he gave some very practical and wise suggestions to deans, emphasizing first of all the importance of confidence between dean and girls—a dean should demonstrate her faith in her girls and should

teach them to have faith in her. Among his suggestions for a dean's work Doctor Alely mentioned the desirability of being conversant with the history and lives of women of other ages and other lands; of keeping in touch with one's own youth; of refraining from needless specific regulations; and of bringing women students into contact with men and women of high achievement. "Build up the standards of our girls. Establish their ideals. Cultivate in them the deep abiding graces of gentleness, culture and self-control" were Doctor Alely's parting words.

Doctor Alely was followed by Dean Nardin of the University of Wisconsin, whose topic was, "Democracy in our Universities and Colleges." In asking Miss Nardin to speak on this subject the committee had hoped for an analysis of the sorority system which seems I think to most of us the big organized non-democratic institution sanctioned by the authority of our colleges. Miss Nardin, however, treated the subject so diplomatically that the newspapers reported her as "defending the sorority system." Both Dean Doan and I have tried to get notes from Dean Nardin that would enable us to present a report of her talk but have had no reply. As I have only a short newspaper report and my own memory to depend upon, I shall not try to make a report. The meeting was, I think, a very great success in excellency of the addresses, as social recreation and in number in attendance. The fact that the American Association of University Women had met in Indianapolis earlier in the spring and that a very large number of university and college deans of women from distant points had already been to Indianapolis for that meeting, affected the attendance of deans at the National Education Association. The result was that a good percent of those present were deans and advisers of girls in secondary schools.

It was voted that the report be accepted and placed on file.

The meeting then turned from business to the addresses of the afternoon. "Personnel Work, Its Relation to the Student in College," by L. B. Hopkins, Northwestern University, and "Personnel Work, Its Relation to the College Graduate," by Emma P. Hirth, Director of the Bureau of Vocational Information, New York City.

Wednesday, February 24, 1926

The association met in business session at two o'clock on Wednesday afternoon, February 24, Miss Purington presiding.

Lucy J. Newton, representative in attendance at the National Congress of Parents and Teachers held last May, presented her report which is published elsewhere in the Yearbook. On motion the report was adopted and the request for material, valuable for parents and for programs for meetings of parent teachers associations, was referred to the chairman of the Committee on Relation to Other Organizations.

Anna E. Pierce presented the report of the Committee on Health, a preprint of which was in the hands of members, under the title "The Dean's Responsibility to Secure Ideal Health Conditions for Her Students."

On motion of Miss Verder, it was seconded and voted that the report be accepted with thanks.

Martha Tracy followed with an address on "A New Movement in Student Health."

There was enthusiastic, general participation in the discussion which followed.

The report of the Committee on Relation to Other Organizations was presented by the chairman, Anne Dudley Blitz, with the heading, "How Can the Association Make Its Relation to Other Organizations More Vital."

On motion the report was accepted and the recommendation of the National Amateur Athletic Federation of America was referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

The meeting then adjourned.

Thursday, February 25, 1926

The National Association of Deans of Women met in business session at 9:30 on Thursday morning, February 25, in the theater of the Wardman Park Hotel, Florence Purington presiding.

Special committees created by action of the association to be appointed by the president were announced as follows:

Committee on Intellectual Life of Women and General Educational Policy—Ethel Hampson Brewster, Swarthmore College; Frances Fenton Bernard, Smith College; Alice Hill Byrne, Western College for Women.

Headquarters—Agnes E. Wells, Indiana University; Florence K. Root, College of Wooster; Anna L. Rose, George Washington University.

Revision of Bylaws—Thyrsa W. Amos, University of Pittsburgh; Mary W. Sawyer, High School, Brookline, Massachusetts; Irma Hathorn, Teachers' College, River Falls, Wisconsin.

Reports were presented as follows:

Committee on Press and Publications, by Helen M. Smith, College for Women, Western Reserve University. It was moved, seconded, and carried that the report be accepted and placed on file.

Committee on Membership, by Thyrsa W. Amos, University of Pittsburgh. On a motion by Miss Pierce, it was seconded and voted that the report of the committee be accepted, and its work heartily approved.

Committee on Budget, by Katharine Rogers Adams, Mills College. It was moved by Miss Newman, seconded by Miss Wells, and voted that the report be accepted.

Committee on Audit. In the absence of the chairman, Mrs. Barbour Walker, William Smith College, the report was read by the Secretary. It was moved by Miss Alvord, seconded by Miss Stimson, and voted that the report be accepted.

Committee on Study of Sororities, by Agnes E. Wells, Indiana University. After this, Louise Leonard, representing the National Panhellenic, spoke. It was moved by Miss Richards, seconded by Miss Alvord, and voted that the report be accepted.

At this time the following communication was read:

My dear Miss Doan:—

I have been granted leave of absence for the first semester of next year for a trip around the world. In view of this fact it seems best for me to withdraw from the presidency of this association, and I hereby regretfully tender my resignation.

FLORENCE PURINGTON.

It was moved by Miss Simrall, seconded by Miss Dutton and passed by a rising vote, that the resignation of Miss Purington be accepted with regret and with much appreciation of her service as president of this association.

The report of the Committee on Nominations was presented by Emily H. Dutton:—

As President of the Association to complete the unexpired term of Dean Purington—of one year—Dorothy Stimson, Goucher College,

As First Vice-President—Margaret Shore Morriss, Women's College of Brown University.

As Secretary—Juliet J. Poynter, Science Hill School, Shelbyville, Kentucky.

It was moved by Miss Crawford, seconded by Miss Wells and voted, that the report be accepted. On motion of Miss Potter it was voted that the secretary

cast the unanimous ballot of the association for those nominated to fill the offices becoming vacant at this time. The ballot was cast and the election declared completed.

The report of the Committee on Resolutions was presented by the chairman, Josephine P. Simrall. The articles were read and voted upon seriatim. It was moved by Miss Austin of Illinois College for Women, seconded by Doctor Tracy and voted, that the report as a whole with the alterations be accepted.

An invitation was read from the National Student Council of the Young Women's Christian Association asking that the National Association of Deans of Women send three or four representatives to the National Student Assembly, a section of the Ninth National Convention of the Y. W. C. A. to be held in Milwaukee, April 21-27, 1926. On motion of Miss Crawford of the University of Southern California, seconded by Miss Dutton of Sweetbriar College, it was voted that the matter of representatives be referred to the executive committee.

The result of the election of officers for the sections was announced.

The meeting then adjourned.

Department of Elementary School Principals

THE DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS, temporarily organized as the National Association of Elementary School Principals at the Atlantic City meeting of the Department of Superintendence in February, 1921, became a department of the National Education Association at Des Moines, in July, 1921.

The officers of the Department for the year 1926-27 are: *President*, E. Ruth Pyrtle, Principal, McKinley School, Lincoln, Nebr.; *First Vice-President*, Herbert C. Hanson, Principal, Talcott School, Chicago, Ill.; *Second Vice-President*, Julia M. White, Principal, Steele School, Beaver, Colo.; *Third Vice-President*, Eva G. Pinkston, Principal, Cumberland School, Dallas, Texas; *Secretary*, Warren A. Roe, Principal, Belmont Avenue School, Newark, N. J.; *Treasurer*, Courtland V. Davis, Principal, J. E. B. Stuart School, Norfolk, Va.; *Executive Committee*: M. E. Peterson, Supervising Principal of Schools, Los Angeles, California; W. T. Longshore, Principal, Greenwood School, Kansas City, Mo.; Jesse M. Fink, Principal, Palmer School, Grand Rapids, Mich.; Ide G. Sargeant, Principal, School No. 10, Paterson, N. J. This Department meets twice each year—in February and in June. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1921: 453 1922: 851-886 1923: 653-666 1924: 545-564 1925: 450-477

PUBLICITY AND PUBLIC EDUCATION—ABSTRACT

WILLIAM H. ALLEN, DIRECTOR, INSTITUTE FOR PUBLIC SERVICE,
NEW YORK CITY

EDUCATION's own spokesmen are closing more doors to educational publicity than are editors of newspapers and magazines. Official statements about education that are dashed off, drooled off in uncourteous disregard of readers and auditors are robbing schools of support and understanding which teachers earn and publics want to give.

The greatest obstruction to helpful school publicity is harmful school publicity because it mistakes noise and space for benefit; creates more opposition and indifference to adequate school support than it removes; miseducates worse than misrepresentation and repudiates through official action what it promises in publicity campaigns for support.

Five specific defects in current school publicity must be remedied before education can gain the public support which it needs; there is too much halo over schooling and too little over education; too little variety and too much repeating of subjects, speakers, and actors; too little education about school work between emergency appeals; too little informing about the decreased purchasing power of the education dollar; and too little free speech with almost no open criticism respecting slovenly, dull, inaccurate and deceiving school publicity.

Publics support what they enjoy. They can't be as liberal about salaries as about stadiums until they enjoy teachers and teachers' results. Being harangued for schools reduces capacity to be generous toward schools. Being agreeable news is better than begging or stunting news as a publicity policy for education.

To help principals conduct self-surveys by and for their home schools, the speaker and President Ide Sargeant presented to the elementary principals association a checking publicity score card. Among questions affecting taxpayers and parents were these: Do most taxpayers and parents find the annual school report interesting, fairly readable, unreadable? Is school publicity chiefly about school politics, stunts, wrangles, gossip, or evidences of school progress? Are children taught the news value of important school work? Do taxpayers understand reasons for increased school costs well, fairly, badly? Does school publicity entertain, wheedle, scold or inform the public?

Among publicity aids too little recognized were mentioned lay conventions, teacher contact with public, satisfied employers, currently informed parents, democratically conducted school agencies and faculty meetings, and radio programs.

THE EDUCATIONAL FIELD

MARY McSKIMMON, PRESIDENT OF NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION,
PRINCIPAL, PIERCE SCHOOL, BROOKLINE, MASS.

This great field is bounded on the north by frozen tradition. This is what keeps the slow chill of frost holding back the harvest of advancing knowledge. This is where the conservative spirit distrusts everything new; that holds to the belief that all new discoveries as to the needs of the development of the child are fads. From this region come the cartoonists who forever picture the teacher as an impossible termagant, the school boy as awaking in tears daily because the schoolhouse hasn't burned down in the night. Here also dwell the authorities secure in their unbendable knowledge that the children of today know next to nothing of the reading, writing, and arithmetic fundamentals. They only warm up when fury seizes them at the mildest suggestion that the teachers' salaries should be raised. Their retort never varies, "Teachers are paid too much now."

To the east of this field lies the land of sunrise. 'Thither our eyes have been turned often of late. We have now two great interests in that land. One is the World Court to which our hearts are sped. This is the confession of the grown people of America that isolation is barrenness and selfishness. We are committed now to the knowledge that what is ultimately for the good of all must concern all. Our great inheritance of legal truth and diplomacy from John Marshall, Daniel Webster, Rufus Choate, John Hay, and Walter Hines Page has given us noble ideals of what fine relationships with foreign peoples might be. And our newest educational interest, that of our International Relationships starting with the meeting at San Francisco and continuing at Edinburgh bids us wreath our service to childhood with a great hope. If we can weld together the childhood of the world in a common interest in their games, and everyday experiences, we have razed to the ground the greatest barrier to their common friendship. The poet long ago knew how isolation of interest cultivates enmity when he wrote:—

Lands intersected by a narrow firth abhor each other
Mountains interposed make enemies of nations
Who had else like kindred drops been melted into one.

The southern boundary of the educational field has a characteristic common to every other side, inasmuch as so far as it comes in touch with professional education without fathers so far as any research has discovered. Public days, Education Week, graduations are all attended by mothers, so are reports signed, with mothers are school difficulties settled. I wonder if any other land harbors families of such interesting boys and girls where fathers know so little about their children's schools. Who shall be the great personality in education able to win the fathers long enough from business or pleasure to take the interest that would transform the boy's schooling for him, making it alive with a dignity and

importance now lacking. American children need no one thing so much today as to get school interests out of No Man's Land.

The chief river in this field is Progress, and how swift its current is! Even under our own eye we can almost see new interests take shape and color. It reminds one of the marvels of the moving picture where a sleeping seed breaks through its blanketing soil, growing before our eyes to leaf, stem, and flower. Our favorite tributary is National Prosperity, another is a newly swollen one, evidently fed by hidden springs, we might call it Passion-for-school. When we can change this one to Passion-for-Education, or must we despair of substitution and await a new fountain to spring into existence bearing a new wealth of power to our river Progress?

The mountain range is Cast-out-Fear, for from its noble peaks great visions of the future wellbeing of education may be seen, but by the fearless alone. The fog of doubt and prejudice make these mountains unsafe to the fearful because the great vision such might receive is hidden to them. The great dawn of the real appreciation of education can be seen from the twin peaks—Education Bill and Child Labor Amendment. This great vista has long been cut off from some approaches for they lie through Death Desert, caused by Public Indifference.

But there are even in this desert land as in the greatly favored places great fertile oasis, for the blessed devotion of the teachers of the children are changing these deserts into gracious gardens where the barren ground is blossoming like the rose of Sharon. Here crooked places are being made straight and rough places plain, and the glory of the heritage of the founders is shining from the face of every child. In these shining regions they no longer talk vaguely about child study, but they set themselves to study every child's native ability to learn, his need of the right hours of sleep, play, and work; they are learning how to protect the best of them from the clutch of disease. They are finding the best ways of training him into the mind and character of a citizen of no mean land.

Some day it will be an unfailingly successful task that the people of this educational field have set themselves to do. For when public indifference has disappeared forever, the opportunities for childhood will have increased beyond our power to reckon and the teachers will all be able to give their entire energy and most courageous cheer into this great work, for they will no longer divide the strength that ought to be given to the work they love in vaguely trying to make one dollar do the work of two.

THE ALL-YEAR SCHOOL—ABSTRACT

WARREN A. ROE, PRINCIPAL OF BELMONT AVE. SCHOOL, NEWARK, N. J.

Shall makeshift summer schools be continued or shall our schools be organized upon a sane and practical all-year basis that will substitute for preventive, corrective, and sporadic summertime efforts a constructive, progressive, and regular procedure that will contribute genuinely to advancement in the regular courses of the school?

The short term unit, if it be twelve weeks, reduces a penalty for disability eight weeks over the customary twenty weeks. The adoption of the semi-annual term raised the country-wide educational level twenty years ago. The all-year school with its short term unit is as great a step toward the solution of retardation in our schools as the electric light is an improvement over the candles of our ancestors.

By dividing a course of study into the smallest units that are administratively possible and educationally sound, there will be given to the largest numbers of pupils the greatest amount of education thereby reducing the costs, increasing the facilities and attaining toward the ultimate purpose of education, education for all the people capable of receiving it.

All-year schools are just a better means of showing common sense in using the available time, the money a community can spend, the plant it is able to maintain, and the trained ability of its teaching body so that the time is best utilized, the money secures the most it can buy, the plant is used to capacity, and the teaching ability is made available to the most pupils.

All-year schools are progress with which fine leadership will face a new dawn in educational administration with courage, with skill, and the will to conquer.

THE PRINCIPAL, THE LAW, AND THE EVIDENCE

A. E. WINSHIP, EDITOR, JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, BOSTON, MASS.

The elementary school, years nine to eleven, is to be the promoter of social and industrial morale, the "safety zone" for educational speeders.

The first three years—the babyhood—are the mother's responsibility. The second three years, three to five,—the childhood—are the family responsibility. The third three years, six to eight—boyhood initiative—are the years in which he learns how to learn from books. The fourth three years, nine to eleven,—boyhood "selfstarter"—are the years in which opportunity means responsibility.

The elementary school is the school of the elements. Since 1800 we have known that elements were made of atoms, that the atoms had distinctive characteristics in each of the elements. Since 1900 we have known that atoms were composed of electrons, that all electrons have the same size and weight, so to speak, but they are transformed when they create atoms. For instance, there are about two thousand electrons in an atom of hydrogen, about twelve thousand in an atom of carbon, about a quarter of a million in a atom of radium. While no microscope has ever made it possible to see an atom we know all about even the electrons of atoms of every element. For instance, the nucleus of every independent electron has a negative electric power, but when the electron has become an atom the atom of each element has a distinctive positive electric nucleus. So the "elements" of the years, nine to eleven have a distinctive positive character which they did not have at eight years of age.

In the six-to-eight-year period there is certain negative achievement as the children learn to read, to write, to spell, to know number, to think, and to learn. There is comparatively little need of different activities in making opportunities for children to learn from six to eight. It is chiefly a difference in the time required to attain certain abilities. Individuality is chiefly a question of the teacher's patience and of exposure to opportunities. They are primary or primal opportunities.

All this changes in the elemental years, nine to eleven. In the primary years he learned to read. In the elementary years he reads to learn. He learned to know number, now he uses number. He has to speak and write correctly, now he speaks and writes correctly to impress what he has to say by the skill with which he says it. He learned how to think, now he thinks what he has occasion to think about.

Now everything is individual, emerges from the group. Like the electron he has the two thousand positive power of hydrogen, or the quarter of a million positive power in radium. It is now a crime to limit him to the traditional course of study or to the modern ambitious curriculum. In these three years opportunities increase in arithmetical ratio and the responsibilities increase in geometrical ratio, so that when the boy or girl is twelve years of age the character as well as the scholarship may be established, may be social, civic, industrial hydrogen or radium. The elementary school teacher or principal who arrogantly claims the right to cramp the twelve year old stuntingly is only a little less criminal than the curricula expert who aristocratically straps him to a machine that standardizes the cramping and stunting.

Character is always *a* character, is never *the* character. With ten number characters we can measure eternity, but no one number character does the work of any other number character. Call four five, or five four and you wreck all computataion.

Call John's character William's, and Mary's Jane's and you wreck the character of all of them.

Until we make the school years nine to eleven the school of the elements of character as well as of intellect, we will continue to send into life terrible jungles of nitrogen and chlorine, of hydrogen and radium.

THE PAST, PRESENT, AND FUTURE OF THE DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS AS SEEN BY THE OLD GUARD

IDE G. SARGEANT, PRINCIPAL, PUBLIC SCHOOL NO. 10, PATERSON, N. J.

During the summer and fall of 1920 and early winter of 1921, groups of principals in New Jersey, Texas, and the University of Chicago, independently of one another, gave serious consideration to the necessity for a national organization of principals. Representatives of these groups went to the winter meeting of the Department of Superintendence with the definite purpose to see what could be done to meet this need. When these men and women, together with principals like-minded from other states

met in conference there was such unanimity of sentiment that a preliminary organization was formed, with Leonard Power of Texas, president, and John L. Bracken of Minnesota for secretary. This organization was made permanent at the annual meeting at Des Moines and became a department of the National Education Association.

The Department of Elementary School Principals was organized at Atlantic City, in 1921, for the specific purpose of taking a promiscuous group of school workers called principals, in the main unorganized, timid, without knowledge of their rights and duties, and weld them into a trained group with sufficient class-consciousness, self-respect, and education to constitute a professional body capable of giving to the big modern school and its community that quality of leadership which the involved conditions incident to the life of a wealthy and rapidly growing industrial nation demands.

Outside of a limited number of our largest cities, there was no agreement among our communities as to what constituted the gist of a principal's work. Superintendents and school boards did not know. No one knew whether he should be a statistical clerk, a supervisor or combination of the two. The scholastic training and salary of this so-called school official was but slightly in advance of the classroom teacher. There were practically no books on school administration and supervision which would be of help to the principal.

The increasing percent of urban dwellers had made much of the practical home training of former days impossible with the consequent heavier load to be carried by the school. These conditions and the higher level of general education called for a new type of school executive who must traverse an uncharted sea in making the modern school one hundred percent effective. School superintendents could offer little personal help as the technic and difficulties brought about by the rapidly expanding duties of their own field so completely filled all their time as to leave neither opportunity nor energy for the study of the specific problems of the principal. Colleges and universities had nothing to offer of substantial value in helping solve the difficult problem. College professors who had given some study to the problems of elementary education openly stated that they seriously questioned the probability of those now acting as principals, having the ability, training, and point of view necessary to meet the requirements demanded for the principalship of the new type of elementary school. Another solution proposed was to make the principal chief executive clerk, or errand boy of the institution, at everybody's beck and call, the real work of supervision to be done by special subject supervisors. Those of us with experience in the work of the principal knew this meant a balkanized school with its deplorable chain of over emphasis of subjects, vindictive rivalries, petty jealousies, and self-seeking flunkysim. Those principals who were in attendance at the 1920 meeting of the Department of Superintendence, in Chicago, were thoroughly aroused to the danger confronting the elementary schools. Its problems were prominent subjects for discussion, but were being handled almost entirely by those without practical experience in the

work under consideration. A more depressing situation could hardly be imagined. Everyone of us started for home with the determination to build an organization that would give us principals measuring up to the exigencies of our time or quit the business.

When our organization had been completed at Des Moines for the purpose of providing thoroughly trained principals of first grade ability for the schools, a step had been taken in education ranking in importance with the campaigns of Horace Mann for the better training of teachers and the establishment of Normal Schools, and like the earlier movement both the teaching body and the general public must be educated to see the need.

It was this situation that brought our department into being. In five years we have built up an aggressive membership that is becoming thoroughly trained along cultural and professional lines. We have received the most cordial cooperation from normal schools, colleges, and universities in offering courses that would be helpful in giving to the schools the new type of principal required. Superintendents of the higher order have come unreservedly to our help. But let no one unfamiliar with what it has cost or its foundation principles imagine that bringing the department to its present strength and efficiency has been an easy task. It has required hard work, wise counsel, and close adherence to the sound traditions of its inception. Further, our continued success means no deviation from the principles and traditions of our early ideals. In order that we may put these principles and traditions in tangible form, I have asked some of the officials who have been most instrumental in building our structure for a brief summary. Our first secretary and editor of the second yearbook, John L. Bracken, refers to the situation among the principals at the University of Chicago as follows:

The lack of definite literature for elementary school principals, lack of cohesion on the part of these keymen and women had given rise on several occasions during the course to suggestions, not original with the members of the group, that a national organization of elementary school principals should be consummated. The formation of the national association of elementary school principals at Atlantic City in February of the next year is history. The reception of this association into the National Education Association as one of its departments still stands as a temporal line of demarcation in the professionalization of the principalship. It was the determination to publish the yearbook of our department which definitely marked the Department of Elementary School Principals as a live productive organization. Worth McClure, Leonard Power, and I held one of the most discouraging meetings of the department at Chicago when we faced the seeming impossibility of securing funds with which to publish the first yearbook. It was a combination of Leonard Power's enthusiasm and of Secretary Crabtree's far-seeing wisdom which brought the National Education Association to guarantee to finance this publication. I am writing a few of the things which I remember and which I feel anyone who shared in this most successful task, in no matter how humble a capacity, has infinite cause for continued self-congratulation.

Worth McClure, editor of the *First Yearbook*, and second president of the department sets forth our purpose with force and clearness when he states:

There are, I believe, three fundamental traditions which have made the Department of Elementary School Principals great. I mean, first of all the emphasis upon the principal's viewpoint in the study of every problem. Not generalities, but "brass tacks." Not curriculum building in general, for example, but what specific things have principals had to do to courses of study in order to make them function in the classrooms? I mean, too, the insistence that the presidency of the organization shall be held only by those who have previously served the department, not only conspicuously, but by the sweat of the brow. The third, and perhaps the most vital of all three, is that of high professional qualifications for the editor of the yearbook. I was glad when I heard of the proposed honorarium for the editor. The editor earns it all, and more. But an honorarium and travelling expenses are attractive to the politically inclined, and for that reason extra safeguards should be thrown around the selection of the editor. The yearbook is the keystone of the departmental arch. If the yearbook collapses, the arch will crumble. The editor must not only be a leader, but he or she must always be a principal, with experience and training in practical research. We who have been through the flames know this, but it may not occur to the present generation, who are about to inherit a full-fledged department which is a "going concern."

Leonard Power, first president of the department, speaks of other phases of our work as follows:

Please say for me that the principals must not forget their great purpose to tear down those artificial distinctions between elementary and high school. They should adhere to their determination to pursue the development of the technic of school supervision and administration to a point beyond that now reached. They should stand with their teachers against the necessity of transfer to a high school in order to receive remunerative recognition of further professional training.

The American people are for their public schools. They think more in terms of the elementary school than in terms of the secondary school. The situation which has arisen (and which results in a secondary system that sucks the best blood from the elementary system) is not yet fully understood by them. They do not realize that the best instruction is needed with the younger children, but we can show them. As a matter of fact, the elementary field of instructional technic has shown much more development than the secondary field.

Say for me, that I hope the principals will bend their efforts to make it possible for any elementary principal to remain in his school and get as much pay as any other principal in the system, provided training and administrative responsibilities are equivalent.

One of our present needs is well set forth by Jessie M. Fink, a former secretary and president of the department:

Our present greatest need is that of increasing our membership. This will give us funds to carry on our program. Increased membership means ability to proceed with the committee work already in progress. It also means acquainting the public with our activities and gaining a sympathetic and helpful support. In these days the layman as well as the educator has to be considered. To give our findings to the world at large increases our usefulness and gives us a desirable status.

No member in the entire department has carried a greater load, done more constructive work or has a better knowledge of the members and their sentiments, than the editor of our yearbook, Arthur S. Gist. This is the future as he sees it.

Future problems for the Department of Elementary School Principals:

1. One of the most important undertakings for our department is to study scientifically the most vital problems in elementary education and how the principal may best function in the solution of these problems.
2. Another important phase is the dissemination of valuable studies in elementary education, especially those dealing with the principal's aspects of these problems.

Caution.

1. We should be most careful in guarding against the use of our department as a publication bureau for studies made by other organizations. Some of these studies might not be of vital interest to principals and none would likely be of much stimulus to principals if they had no part in such investigations.

Results of such a program.

1. Such a program would stimulate all elementary school principals to the highest type of service.
2. It would result in a large, enthusiastic membership in our department.
3. It would mean the universal recognition of elementary school principals as experts in elementary education.

In closing I wish to make certain definite suggestions based on my observations and experience after five and one half years of service for the department.

First—That the editor of the yearbook, after a satisfactory probationary term of one year, be appointed for a term of two years, making the term of service a period of three years; such official to be nominated by the president, and approved by a majority of the executive committee at the winter meeting; such editor to receive adequate compensation, the amount of which to be determined by the executive committee. From the beginning it has been felt that the appointment of the editor by the president, after the summer meeting, for a term of one year was a temporary expedient. But inasmuch as we were not in a position to pay for the work done, we felt we could not ask any one to assume this heavy burden for more than a year. This defect has been minimized largely through the fact that Mrs. Fink and myself were able to induce Mr. Gist to continue the work he had so ably carried on in Mr. Longshore's administration. The executive committee at the mid-winter meeting in Cleveland recognized the difficulty of the late summer appointment and elected the editor at the official breakfast. It was for the same reason, that the nominating committee at Indianapolis suggested that the editor of the *Fourth Yearbook* be retained for the Fifth. Of a like tenor was the action of the executive committee at the official breakfast in Washington in voting to retain Mr. Gist, as editor, for 1927, with an honorarium of \$1000 for the present year if our finances will permit. The position of editor has never been created by action of this department. We are now strong enough financially and in membership to remove this vital position from the nebulous limbo in which it has been encumbered. It should be legitimately established and be given a definite status at our business session.

Second—Our annual membership fee in the department is now \$2. It should be increased to \$3. Our income is wholly inadequate for the work in hand. Through vigorous effort during the past year we have been able to increase our membership by a little over 500, giving us an added revenue over last year of about \$1000. We need to undertake an effective campaign for new members in the year ahead. We need to do much more effective publicity work that the benefits of our organization may be widely distributed. The published reports of such students of research as Doctor Morrison, Doctor Norton, and Doctor Crouch tell a pathetic tale of the degradation of the principalship in thousands of communities with its consequent robbery of the nation's children. Our Committee on Standards and Training is doing a splendid piece of constructive work. It plans during the coming year to publish its report, a volume of 250 pages, of highest professional value. This will involve an expense of from \$2000 to \$4000. It will be a source of pride to every principal in the land. Our department must finance it but to do it we must raise our dues. Annual dues of \$3 will not deprive us of one worthwhile member which we now have nor will it keep one prospective member from joining our ranks. But it will give us funds to carry on the important projects which our department has undertaken.

During the year the Committee on Educational Progress, under the chairmanship of F. H. Duffy, has fully organized with a live member in nearly every state. It is the work of this committee to be the eyes and ears of the department to keep us in touch with all the most progressive activities in education throughout the nation.

Our Committee on Enrolment, under the chairmanship of Jessie M. Fink, is now in the process of effective organization with a working member in each state and territory of the union. This committee has the large task to enrol the 50,000 principals of the country. A strong committee of this kind can do much more effective work than a field secretary, do it at much lower cost, and do better follow-up work.

Our Committee on Cooperation with Civic Bodies, under the chairmanship of M. H. Traphagen, is in the process of formation. This committee will be able to collect information on what is being done and suggest the best lines of operation for publicity, and building an intelligent, effective support for the schools.

We have strong, well thought out committees. I wish to caution the department against creating new committees. We have enough. More mean added cost and confusion. All new lines of work should be referred to one of the standing committees, or if necessary, be conducted by a sub-committee of the standing committee. These were matters of little moment in the beginning but with the coming of a large membership, financial resources, and numerous activities, careful systematic order must be observed. Otherwise, we shall waste our resources, become involved in movements not germane to our work and harmful controversies.

Each department of the National Education Association should create a permanent fund at the earliest moment possible. For this a certain percent of our income should be set aside each year. To this could be added gifts and bequests to keep it growing. It would be a fine thing for our department to be the first to institute this sound financial procedure. I recommend that we make an appropriation of \$500 to establish the fund at once.

The income from this fund to be used for carrying on special lines of research work desired by principals in service. I do not approve of the policy of a large vitally important group like the principals going to a foundation or some other body, as supplicants asking for a dole to carry on necessary work. It means if such outside organization does aid us that we shall be handicapped to a considerable degree by restrictions and circumstances which we cannot control. It is a humiliation to think that a great group like ours should be hampered by any such conditions. Let us not be the victims of an inferior complex any longer. Investigations and publications put out by this department must be completely under the control of or the work of principals themselves with no hidden strings attached to discount our work. Let us begin now to put our work on a sound foundation by making a beginning of a permanent fund. Let us be leaders in this fine work as we were with our yearbook.

The future is bright with the promise of a great educational calling known as the principalship, a calling offering an attractive and permanent career to the ablest and most ambitious of the land, a calling not based on selfishness but on ability to sense higher spiritual values and make them effective in the lives of our people through the instrumentality of the public school.

THE VALUE OF AN EXPERIMENTAL SCHOOL

ABBY PORTER LELAND, PRINCIPAL, JOHN HANCOCK SCHOOL
NEW YORK CITY

In this article I am using the term experimental rather than the word demonstration which appears on the program, for it seems to indicate better the topic assigned me. It is the term used in my city for the schools designated by the city superintendent as experimental. Those of us who are in charge of these schools are expected to *demonstrate* as well as *experiment* along such lines as the grading and classification of pupils, curriculum revision, methodology, etc. These schools are located in the boroughs of Manhattan, Bronx, Brooklyn, and Queens, in various race and nationality communities, thereby representing a cross section of cosmopolitan New York; the schools vary in size from a school of 23 classes with a register of 762 to a school of 66 classes with a register of 2454; they range from those in a static community as in certain Italian sections, where there are practically no transfers, to schools with an annual 50 percent "turnover" in school population as in the case of my present school; they include in type the 6B school, the 8B school and the junior high school.

The assistant director of the bureau of reference, research, and statistics, William J. McGrath, in a recent report states that the principals of the experimental schools "have carried on during the last two years a series of experiments in the teaching of vocabulary, silent reading, fundamentals in arithmetics, dealing with the constancy of the I. Q., and growth in mental ages and subject ages based on a comparative study of the results of two batteries of mental and achievement tests, the first given in December, 1922, the second in May, 1924.

Over 4000 children tested in December, 1922, by the national intelligence test, Scale A, Form 1, were retested in May, 1924. There was a correlation of .83. This indicated to the principals that on the whole the tests they had used for classification were valid. In general, children with I. Q.'s of 110 and above were placed in bright classes; with I. Q.'s of 90-109 in normal classes; and with I. Q.'s below 90 in slow classes.

Classifying pupils in ability groups demonstrated such advantages as are usually given, as (1) helps to hold each group up to a standard commensurate with its ability, (2) helps to improve discipline, (3) helps to encourage the slow pupil, as for instance, by developing leadership in this group, etc., (4) helps to improve academic standards of the school and thereby increases promotion and reduces cost. The retests in May 1924 indicated that slow children profited sufficiently by the adjusted course of study and adjusted methods so that their increased progress and interest were reflected in higher I. Q.'s. 58.2 percent of the original (December, 1922) 80-89 I. Q. group, usually termed slow, rose on the May, 1924, retests above 90 I. Q. into the normal and bright groups; 18.8 percent of the 70-79 I. Q. group also rose on these retests into normal and bright groups. It would seem therefore that the experimental schools demonstrated that in classification of pupils the I. Q. though on the whole valid and reliable, should always be supplemented by all other available and pertinent information, as language handicap, physical defects, habits of industry, studiousness, persistence, etc. The schools further demonstrated that from time to time retests should be given to determine growth, if any, in mental age.

Perhaps it would be well to refer briefly to the experimental study made of the teaching of vocabulary, silent reading, spelling, fundamentals in arithmetic, and reasoning in arithmetic. Each experimental school was asked to specialize in certain phases of the study. For instance public school 1 Bronx selected silent reading and public school 157 Manhattan, arithmetic. The study has not only demonstrated objectively and statistically certain things that we have all known, as the fact that children are appallingly lacking in vocabulary building, but brought to light other things not so generally well known and has made a contribution along the line of methodology, etc. The bureau of reference, research, and statistics of New York City will be glad to send to members of the Department of Elementary School Principals, such reports on the study as they have already made and additional reports as they appear.

I give below an account of the arithmetic experiment in public school 157 Manhattan as reported by Mildred Innes, teacher in charge of this experiment:

1. *Material provided*—1. Class sets of drills in the fundamental operations with integers, fractions, and decimals. There are forty-two sets for each grade.

2. Detailed plan for daily remedial work in problems for each teacher.

3. Pupils' record cards on which are recorded the results of previous diagnostic and reasoning tests.

2. *Use of Material*—The work in fundamentals prescribed for each day consists of from five to ten minute drills from the class drill sheets. The teacher consults the pupils' record cards to determine where drill is most needed. An individual record is kept by each pupil and occasionally the work is timed to enable him to see how he is progressing.

The daily work in problems consists of twenty minutes' work following the directions on the problem sheet for the first four days of the week with a test on the fifth day. The teacher applies the suggestions for remedial work to the problems of her own grade. The pupils' cards show the ability of the pupil in solving problems. The record gives the number of problems in which the principle was correct, the number solved within a given time, and the number of correct answers.

At the end of each term a formal test is given consisting of twenty-one types of examples in fundamentals and fifteen type problems. These tests are recorded on the cards and from them a report of the median in each type of test for each class is made.

The progress made in my present school with a median I. Q. of only 93.03 is shown in the following excerpt of a report made this month to our district superintendent:

In May, 1925, we gave Form 1 of the Monroe standardized reasoning test in arithmetic. In May, 1926, we gave Form 2 of this test to measure progress. We have translated the raw score for each class into a grade score. The results of the comparison are as follows:

Grade forms obtained from the median scores for each class:

Class	Test, May, 1925	Retest, May, 1926	Gain Above the Normal of 1 year Expected
6B-1	8 yr.	8 yr.	
6B-2	5 yr. 6 mo.	8 yr.	1 yr. 6 mo.
6B-4	4 yr. 8 mo.	6 yr. 9 mo	1 yr. 1 mo.
6B-Opp.	5 yr. 4 mo.	6 yr. 8 mo.	4 mo.
6A-2	5 yr.	6 yr. 8 mo.	8 mo.
6A-5	4 yr. 3 mo.	6 yr. 2 mo.	11 mo.

As indicated above, the 6B-1 children did so well that they were not measured by the tests except for the fact that it was shown that they ranked above the grade work. It will be noted that all other classes showed a gain of more than 12 months, the normal gain expected in a year.

The purpose of this paper has been to picture rather concretely the value of an experimental school:

1. The experimental schools are serving more and more as a 'proving ground,' a laboratory to 'test,' as it were, present theory and practice as well as moot questions in administration and supervision. The schools present their findings concretely and statistically. I cite by way of illustration such a generally accepted procedure as classifying pupils in ability groups so as to enable each child to profit to the fullest extent of his

powers without hindrance of any other greatly deviating type. Tests in the experimental schools showed that in a period of 17 months from December, 1922, to May, 1924, dull normal children gained more than 17 months in arithmetic age, reading age, spelling age, educational age, and mental age. The experimental schools reached a rate of promotion of 96 percent as opposed to the city average of 88 percent largely under a nongrouping plan *in re* ability.

2. The experimental schools are serving more and more as a laboratory for procedure that seems right as well as for moot questions in methodology. A district superintendent, for instance, has requested that the experimental schools test out the results of the Austrian method in subtraction as contrasted with the traditional 'borrow' method. It is a recognition that value of various methods can be tested in the experimental schools under controlled conditions and that at the end of a given time valid conclusions may be drawn.

3. The experimental schools are serving more and more as a laboratory for curriculum interpretation, curriculum revision, and curriculum making. In 1922-1923 a committee of principals of the experimental schools, working with the teachers of these schools, prepared a modified course of study for the dull normal. This course was given to the teachers in mimeographed form, to be used as a basis for further experimentation. A committee is now at work on an enriched course of study for bright children. My own school has been asked by the chairman of the fifteen teachers released in my city to work on the Committee on Curriculum revision, if we would be willing to try out in certain classes in Public School 157 Manhattan the grouping of geography, history, and civics materials under one course of study, social science.

4. The experimental schools are tending to develop even in the most reactionary teacher an experimental attitude, so essential if teachers are to have a share in the effort to realize more and more in the school's the fundamental aim in education, the production of an individual with his special abilities and aptitudes trained to the maximum to fit him for service in the complex society of today. Instead of a task, teaching becomes an adventure.

THE PRINCIPAL AND THE IMPROVEMENT OF TEACHERS IN SERVICE—ABSTRACT

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During the Roman occupation of the Holy Land, it was a custom of the Roman soldier in going about the city or into the country to compel a Jew to walk by his side for the purpose of protection. Out of this practice it is said came that great statement of the Master, "Whosoever shall compel thee to go a mile, go with him twain."

I am old-fashioned enough to believe that there is character and courage and education in going some miles under compulsion. But I am more and

more convinced that real character, real courage, and real education depend upon the number of extra miles which we go on our own volition.

In dealing with teachers the principal will have to decide how much of the improvement in service will be brought by compelling the teacher to follow certain definite rules and regulations. The management of every large institution requires the adoption of such rules. There may be difference of opinion while they are under discussion, but as soon as they are adopted, then every teacher should follow those general rules and general orders. There is no servitude, there is no self-denial in it, there is no slavery in it. It is one of the indications of high intelligence and social character.

The law requires of principals and teachers many things that must be done. The principal and teacher who in their work can do these required things with relish, do them as if they chose themselves to do them, are the ones who will get the most growth and the most character out of this compulsory mile. In our dealing with teachers in service we can not avoid a kind of division of them into two groups. There are teachers who will render their best service to the children and to the district by having almost every detail of the school program outlined. They feel no sense of restriction, they feel no sense of personal surrender, no loss of personal and individual character through following these rules. The work of the principal in this group should be suggestion and stimulation to arouse within this group a spirit of self-initiative, a spirit of wilfulness if necessary to do something beyond the requirements, to go an extra mile. Any principal or teacher who drops into the routine lock step habit of following rules and regulations misses all the growing pains and pleasures of real progress. The principal will discover teachers who are resentful at restraints and at definite suggestions, but who excel in initiation and innovation. They are the ones who keep the dead bodies of ancient practices in education from smothering out life and growth.

In preparing a course of study the principal has the best means of improving teachers in service. Here every teacher should have the greatest freedom in discussing the materials to be used. But there will come a time when discussion must cease and something must be agreed upon. When that agreement is reached, then it becomes the plain duty of every teacher to follow the general provisions of the course in order that there may be a unified, cooperative effort. The two biggest words in school administration today are independence and cooperation. We want our teachers to have independence, initiative, self-assertiveness. Any rule of the principal which strangles that kind of a spirit will not tend to improve the teachers in service. On the other hand, the teacher must understand that when the principal asks that every teacher shall conform herself to certain rules and regulations which have been agreed upon, that such conformance does not imply a surrender of individuality or of independence. It is possible for the best teachers in the system to go the mile under compulsion with just as much zest and interest as she goes the many miles of her own choosing.

PLAN OF THE COMMITTEE ON TRAINING FOR THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP

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The Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association is attempting to raise the professional standard of its members.

One of the first steps will be to break down the traditional attitude of administrators and principals themselves that there is a real distinction in degree of preparation or experience between the elementary school, the junior high school, and the high school principal.

We must do away with the false lines that educators themselves have drawn between the various fields of their work. The idea that rank is somehow associated with the grade of the school is false and distasteful. We want to see the principal of each school rated as the equal of the principal of every other school. The elementary school principal is stepping out on a platform which includes qualifications equal to that of the high school principal. It differs in kind but not in quality or quantity.

Our organization desires to see the elementary schools of the nation under as capable leadership as that now found in the high schools, junior or senior. We believe that the elementary school offers a splendid opportunity for a life of service and that its duties require as high qualifications as the duties of the schools where older children are taught. We also believe that the larger elementary will be found most satisfactory in the future. The elementary school plants should be as large and as completely equipped as are the plants of the junior and senior high schools. Its teachers should be as well trained as are the teachers in the high schools.

With a single standard in mind, based upon training, experience, and merit, and limited of course by the amount of responsibility, we have decided to enlist the cooperation of responsibility, we have decided to enlist the cooperation of superintendents and boards of education. We, the members of the committee on "Standards and Training for the Elementary School Principalship," believe most sincerely in the dignity of the position of the elementary school principal. It is not a stepping-stone to some other position and should not be so treated. It is a life work and deserves the same recognition and remuneration as if the life work were done in a high school or college.

WHAT ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS DO—ONE DAY WITH FIFTY-THREE PRINCIPALS

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When Rodin carved "The Thinker," he paid a lasting tribute to the philosopher—whose end from age to age has been the gleaning, sifting, and interpretations of those ideas, ideals, and attitudes that elevate the creative potentialities of mankind.

Since it is a function of the public school to transmit such ideas, ideals, and attitudes from generation to generation, adapting them to an ever changing environment, any consideration of standards and training for the elementary school principalship calls for the reflective thinking of the educational philosopher to determine to what extent the principal can direct the school toward the realization of the great aims passed on by the thinkers of the centuries.

But since the days when the monastic philosophers spent their time debating the question as to the number of angels that could be encompassed on the point of a needle, there has been a more or less serious conflict of opinion between the philosopher and the individual actually confronted with a task to be done. Thus the maxim, "It is easier to teach twenty what were good to be done than to be one of the twenty to follow mine own teaching," is verified. The practical-minded man would start with the job in hand and make in it whatever changes or improvements would best shape it to his ends. The philosopher would think out his pattern in terms of the good he would achieve and then shape the job to fit his previously formed conception. Both viewpoints are fundamental. Both are essential to a fair determination of the standards and training that should be required for the elementary school principalship.

Most of the studies thus far made of the elementary school principalship have been fact-finding studies. It is the concern of this paper not so much to review what has been learned as to point out the larger meaning of the studies already achieved.

In the Ohio study¹ the average elementary principal claimed that he spent 8 hours a day, exclusive of the lunch period, at his school building. Of this 8 hour day he devoted 12 percent to clerical duties, 16 percent to administrative and organizing duties, 52 percent to teaching, 15 percent to classroom supervision, and 5 percent to the duties pertaining to the school system as a whole. It will be pointed out later that this division of duties is largely influenced by a number of factors, chief of which is the size of building.

Last year the Department of School Administration of the State University secured from some 380 Ohio elementary school principals a statement of the administrative duties which they found most time consuming. Altogether 51 different administrative duties were named; they were:

1. Discipline, including corporal punishment
2. Preparation of reports
3. Playground supervision
4. The details of attendance
5. Supervision of janitor service and building conditions
6. Carrying out superintendent's instructions
7. Mediator between teachers and parents
8. Carrying messages
9. Care of children in basement
10. Health work

¹ Morrison, J. Cayce. *The School Principalship in Ohio Cities and Exempted Villages*. Contributions in School Administration, Vol. II, May 15, 1926.

11. Preparing a Sunday School Census
12. Doing janitorial work
13. Promoting professional study among teachers
14. Organizing activities of the school
15. Overseeing the lunch period
16. Securing the cooperation of parents
17. Welfare work; *e. g.*, procuring clothes for the needy, etc.
18. Helping and conferring with teachers
19. Supervision of corridors (regulating traffic)
20. Ordering and distributing supplies
21. Answering telephone
22. Preparing for and presiding over teachers meetings
23. Assisting in work of parent teachers associations
24. Directing the school banking and handling school funds
25. Care of equipment
26. Supervision of physical education work
27. Administering standard tests (including clerical work on tests)
28. Directing extra-curricular activities (school paper, club work)
29. Regulation of routine matters; *e. g.*, period bells, etc.
30. Registration and enrolling pupils, withdrawals, etc.
31. Directing the distribution of milk to pupils
32. Conducting fire drills
33. Conferences with parents
34. Conferences with superintendent and supervisor
35. Committee work
36. Preparing and distributing notices to teachers
37. Schedule making
38. Personal interviews with pupils
39. Receiving callers
40. Revision of curriculum
41. Attending various meetings
42. Civic duties
43. Visiting rooms (not included in classroom supervision)
44. Making plans and programs for special days
45. Settling misunderstandings between pupils and teachers
46. Securing data for research and health departments
47. Library work
48. Directing assembly periods
49. Following the progress of individual pupils
50. Working on moral problems of individuals and groups of pupils
51. Planning work for the school

Attempting to classify these duties is a most interesting pastime. For instance, answering the telephone, carrying messages, receiving callers, mediating between teachers and parents, preparing Sunday school census, regulating traffic in corridors, directing school banking, and working on moral problems,—all these suggest something of the variety of experiences that are uppermost in a principal's mind. Nor is it without significance to note that the administrative duty first in the mind of most principals, from the standpoint of time consumed, is that of discipline. What the implications of this statement are we have yet to learn.

Recently 53 elementary school principals in Ohio cities kept a detailed diary¹ of all their activities for one day. The average enrolment of these schools was approximately 700 pupils and the average time spent at school by the principal was a few minutes over 7 hours. The work as listed by the 53 principals was analyzed in detail and was roughly classified under the following heads: instructional, clerical, administrative, duties pertaining to the community or the school system as a whole, and professional study.

Thirty-three and one third percent of the total time expended was devoted to the instructional group of duties. Classroom observation, which consumed 18 percent of the total day, ranked first of all the duties in the instructional list. Classroom teaching was second in the list with 8.5 percent of the day; it included both regular teaching duties and substitute teaching. Other items in this list were: conference with teachers concerning instruction; demonstration teaching, both before groups and individuals; teachers meetings and preparation for the same; preparation, giving, and rating of standard tests and examinations; examining pupils' work; coaching pupils, both individually and in groups; and studying notes on observation.

Under the classification of clerical duties, the most time-consuming factor was the telephone. This included making calls, taking messages, delivering messages, and conversation with parents, school officials, and teachers. It is true, of course, that the telephone might be listed as an administrative duty. It was arbitrarily placed in the clerical column because it is assumed that a great deal of the time consumed by the telephone can be cared for by an office clerk quite as well as by the principal himself.

Other clerical duties, ranked in order of time devoted to them, were: preparation of reports for the central office; care of the correspondence, including dictation; keeping of school records; care of the mail; and ordinary clerical work, types not specified.

Administrative duties consumed 53 percent of the total time expended by the 53 principals during the day. By far the largest item of time in this division was given to conferences, that is, a total of 16 percent of the total day. One third of this conference time was spent with teachers in consideration of matters which had little if any direct bearing upon the process of teaching. This heading included such items as discipline, committee work on curricula, community affairs, health of children, special programs, special pupil problems, text books and supplies. Under conferences with pupils were mentioned most frequently such subjects as athletics, failure in class, group projects, and special pupil problems. The remainder of the time spent in conference was with the architect, assistant principal, book men or salesmen, the janitor on questions not pertaining to building, parents, school nurse, and other health officials, parent teacher association workers, superintendent, supervisors, and visitors. Also the bus driver, and school workmen came in for a share of the principal's time.

¹ The form used in keeping this diary was prepared by M. R. Trahue, Director of Educational Research, University of North Carolina for a much more extensive study of the same problem.

Attendance took nearly 6 percent of the principal's working day. This included the checking of daily attendance, conference with pupils who had been late or absent, conferences with parents either in person or by telephone, and reports to Board of Health and the Attendance Department either written or telephoned, to say nothing of searching the streets for truants.

Playground supervision furnishes a school principal with an excuse for recreation. In one or two cases it seemed to be a specialty. On the average, it consumed nearly 5 percent of the principal's working day.

Work directly with pupils, exclusive of conferences mentioned and coaching listed under "instructional activity," occupied 4 percent of the principal's time. Specified under this caption was time spent for discipline, enrolling new pupils, first aid, guidance, and health inspection or supervision.

The elementary school principal has as yet little to do with extra-curricular activities outside of special programs. The items mentioned most frequently were scouting, both for girls and boys, and the school assembly.

The principal's first job for the day invariably is a general inspection of the building and grounds. Occasionally he becomes so enamoured with this special phase of his vocation that he repeats the process at least 3 or 4 times a day. His responsibility for buildings and grounds does not end with inspection, but occasionally the principal is called upon to exercise highly specialized judgment concerning the school buildings. Among these functions listed were the supervision of landscape gardening, studying of plans for new buildings, listing of repairs needed, and inspection of troubles in the system of heating and ventilating. So much for the larger items under general administration.

Were you to look in upon the principal you might find him preparing bulletins and placing them on the bulletin board; planning or supervising fire drills; inspecting the library or arranging its materials or furniture; helping in the lunch room either as cash girl, as chief police, or what not; busily absorbed in his office following the routine of the job or in day-dreaming that defies classification; sometimes working on a plan of organization for the next term, preparing plans, working over his own plans or reviewing plans submitted by teachers; distributing, inventoring or requisitioning supplies. At almost every recess or dismissal period he would be found in the corridor supervising the passing of lines. When he is tired of work he walks through the corridor to see that everything is all right. Occasionally he is to be found in conference with a substitute teacher or making arrangements to care for the work of an absent teacher. He still considers administrative details: a suitable reason for teachers meeting. Directing and supervising schemes designed to make financiers of his pupils is not foreign to his program. In some respects he is a social welfare worker; he supervises the collection of clothing and old shoes; now and then he goes into juvenile court; at any time he may be called from the

classroom, lunch, or office to talk with indigent parents or children concerning their problems of want or misfortune.

In a miscellaneous grouping of duties performed we find the principal attending funeral services of deceased pupils, calling on parents, entertaining school guests, making announcements through the building, distributing milk to pupils, preparing publicity items, supervising the taking of class pictures, traveling back and forth between his schools or his own school and the central office, trying to find stolen articles, finding and punishing authors of immoral notes, collecting funds for National Education Association delegates, promoting the work of the teachers retirement association, furthering the community chest drive, and attending lectures with pupils.

Preparation for and attendance at principals meetings constituted, on the day in question, his chief responsibility to the general system. Committee organization came second, with the most important committees being in order, textbooks and supplies, courses of study, and buildings. Work in the interests of Parent Teachers Association and the lyceum course found a place in the record.

Three principals listed time spent in professional study; one of these was working on a study of school banking that would be of direct concern to his own school, while the two others were devoting themselves to an assignment obtained through an extension course.

Of all the functions listed it was interesting to note that only two were mentioned by more than 50 percent of the principals. These functions and the number of principals performing each on the day recorded were, classroom observation 46 and general supervision of playground 47. Other items performed by one fourth or more of the principals on the day in question were conferences with parents 25, demonstration teaching 24, general inspection of buildings 24, pupil discipline 23, office routine 23, checking attendance 22, correspondence 18, regular teaching 18, enrolling or assigning new pupils 17, supervision of passing of lines 16, conference with attendance officers 16, answering telephone 15, extra-curricular duties of some kind 15.

Size of city and size of school building are closely interrelated factors which have a distinct bearing upon the principal's daily job. In Ohio the average elementary school principal of cities with 5000 to 10,000 inhabitants, supervises 8 teachers and 290 pupils, whereas the principal in cities over 100,000 supervises 20 teachers and over 700 pupils. This difference in the size of buildings is reflected in the fact that the average principal of the larger school gives 13 percent of the working day to teaching, as contrasted to 65 percent by the principal in the smaller cities. The latter group gives 7 percent to classroom supervision and 11 percent to administrative and organizing duties in contrast to 27 and 30 percent respectively, devoted to those two functions by the group in the larger schools. Further, the principals of the larger schools exercise a greater responsibility for coordinating the work of the general grade supervisors, for the direct control of custodial service, and in the amount of time given

to general supervision. In cities above 100,000 the principal has more responsibility for assignment of pupils to classes, for determining the class schedules and for rating teachers under his direction.

A second factor influencing the principal's work is sex. Women are usually inclined to give less time to clerical routine and prefer to do more classroom teaching. Frequently they assume less responsibility than do men for supervising janitorial service.

The kind of building leaves its mark upon the principal's job. A principal in a building without an auditorium or an assembly hall, without gymnasium, without a modern lunchroom, or with meager playground facilities is not apt to feel called upon to promote civic organization and responsibility among his pupils.

The school principal with only a shabby office room containing no bookcase, no typewriter, no mimeograph machine, is not apt to feel for long the thrill of professional leadership within his building. When we stop to consider that less than 10 percent of the elementary school principals have any clerical assistance, it is not surprising that a principal should report that he spends a considerable part of his day answering telephone calls, recording school marks, doing other clerical work, and distributing supplies.

As one searches the field of educational literature for help in understanding the school principalship, one is soon confronted with the fact that the chief available information is confined to the publications of the Department of Elementary School Principals. It is reasonable to expect that during the next few years this body will produce an exhaustive literature covering every detail of the work of its membership. One limitation of such studies of which cognizance should be taken is the fact that the membership of this Department represents the elementary school principalship at its best.

When we have found what the principal's job really is, we shall still be confronted with determining what is good and what further should be done. Two types of investigations are still needed. First, to secure from a small group of men and women who have given long and fruitful thought to the skills, attitudes, ideals, and ideas the elementary school should transmit to each oncoming generation of childhood, their judgment as to what the elementary school principal may do toward realizing the function of the school. We need a new statement of the cardinal principles of the elementary school. Second, to secure from superintendents and others a list of the most successful principals and then learn from them the procedures underlying their success. By taking the best procedures from the most successful, we shall ultimately find a method or technic for attaining every principle that the first group may establish.

No other position in American education is due for such rebirth of its vision and practice as is the elementary school principalship.

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL AND RESEARCH

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What should be the relation of the elementary school principal to educational research? When this question has been correctly answered and principals have accepted the answer in actual practice, the teaching profession will have found its "place in the sun."

In recent years much has been said about lifting the profession to a place of higher respect by adopting better schedules for salaries, plans for retirement, and curricula for the training of the nation's teachers. We would not minimize the importance of these things. The work that the research division of the National Education Association has already done and is planning to do in these fields is sufficient to prove our full recognition of their importance in building a better profession. Better salaries, plans for retirement, and professional training are essential in any sound program whose objective is the improvement of the general status of the profession. These measures alone, however, will not suffice.

Before the rank and file of the teaching profession can enjoy economic compensation, social position, and general recognition more nearly equal to that of the successful physician, chemist, or engineer, they must deserve these things. They must have lifted their work to a place where it commands greater respect. Educational procedure in the classroom must have become as sure, as careful, and as skilled as is that of the physician, the chemist, or the engineer. This can be only when the results of scientific educational research have made teaching a far more certain procedure than it is today.

When a body of exact knowledge exists in the field of education comparable to that back of medicine and engineering, and when that knowledge has become the guide of educational procedure—the place of the teaching profession in public respect will be equal to or greater than that enjoyed by any group of the nation's professional groups.

These statements are supported by some of the clearest thinkers in the field of educational research. A few years back Thorndike in his well-known article entitled "Education for Initiative and Originality" made this statement:

I am convinced that just as soon as we develop men who are justly recognized as educational experts, policies, as well as their execution, will be left largely to them. The world is learning rapidly that when a man of ability has studied a topic scientifically and makes his judgments about that topic in the impartial, impersonal fashion of the expert, it is wise to put on him every responsibility in that limited field that he will take.

A similar opinion has just been expressed by Buckingham in the preface of his book, entitled "Research for Teachers." He says:

It is my firm belief that the emancipation and professionalizing of the teacher's calling rest far more upon the originality, insight, and expertness which the teacher evinces than upon any considerations having to do with salary, tenure, or legal status. Society cannot be compelled to respect anybody or anything. The surest way to win respect is to be respectable.

Some there are who doubt the possibility of making educational procedure scientific. It is true that the field of education presents difficulties to the research worker probably greater than those of any other. The material of the teacher is the human being—the most complicated structure on the face of the earth. This complicated material is played upon by a multitude of environmental forces difficult to evaluate and control.

The chemist at the end of a day's research puts away his comparatively simple elements and compounds. The next day he takes them down from the shelf and proceeds in his experiment. His H_2SO_4 is H_2SO_4 both on Monday and Tuesday. His test tubes do not change over night. His scales weigh as accurately in the afternoon as in the morning. He knows exactly what will happen if he pours hydrosulphuric acid on iron filings. The chemist's materials are comparatively simple and relatively stable and controllable.

The child is not so simple. He does not "stay put." Johnny Jones on Monday at 9:00 A. M. may be a very different animal (if the fundamentalists will allow the use of the word) than he was on Friday at 3:00 P. M. Every child is constantly changing. The environmental influences which surround him are continually changing. Can a science even of approximate exactness come out of such a situation?

It can. We have made enough progress in the last quarter of a century to justify faith in the ultimate possibility of a real science of education. Time and industry are but necessary to make educational procedure as exact as medical practice is today. Medicine has become an exact science during the lifetime of men now living. Do not forget that the barber pole reminds us of the day when the doctor and the barber were the same person. Only in recent decades was the fact clearly established that cleanliness is a first essential to successful surgical operations.

Let me read a paragraph from the life of Pasteur, that great pioneer in medical research, describing the conditions which existed in the army hospitals of 1870. The quotation reads:

It was perpetual agony, the wounds of all the patients were suppurating, a horrible feter pervaded the place, and infectious disease was everywhere. "Pus seemed to germinate as if it had been sown by the surgeon."

The medical officer who would allow such conditions to exist in a hospital today, even under the stress of war conditions, would be court-martialed and shot at sunrise for criminal negligence—and his fate would be deserved. Some day we will look back upon some of our present school practices with the same horror that we now regard the conditions described in the last quotation.

Every science in existence today has evolved from a lowly place. Alchemy preceded chemistry, the medicine man evolved into the physician. These and other fields have been purged of the fanciful notions and individual opinions which formerly stood in the way of their progress toward becoming a science.

No field of human activity to which has been applied the scientific method has failed to profit therefrom. Research, that is, systematic, purposeful, open-minded search for the truth, has yielded tremendous dividends in every field in which it has been employed. Why should we doubt that research will give us control of educational processes—particularly when we remember that education has already enjoyed some initial successes in this direction?

It seems safe to assume that each year will bring increases in the body of exact knowledge upon which educational practice may be based—will increase education's claim to be considered a science. What, then, is the relation that the principal should have to this development?

The principal will more and more be called upon to serve as the intermediary between research workers and classroom teachers. This function will involve the interpretation of research findings—and their application to classroom procedure. In the future, the principal who does not bring the practice of his school in accord with the knowledge research has revealed will find it increasingly difficult to keep the respect of his associates or the position that pays his salary. The bungler in any field sticks out like a sore thumb when he works beside experts.

In short, he who holds a position as a principal will be held responsible for knowledge of the results of scientific research that are applicable to everyday practice in the classroom, just as the modern physician is held responsible for shaping his procedure in accordance with the proved findings of medical research.

Whether we like to admit it or not, typical schoolroom practice today often is not modified as fully as it should be by research findings. Educational practice probably lags further behind educational research than practice in other professions lags behind research in their fields. Let me give one or two illustrations: Over a year ago there appeared an excellent summary and evaluation of much of the research conducted in the last two decades concerning the teaching of reading. What percent of elementary school principals during the last year have consciously modified their practice in supervising the teaching of reading because of the important pronouncements of this investigation?

Let me give another illustration: Two years ago there appeared a yearbook of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association entitled *Research in Constructing the Elementary School Curriculum*. This contains a summarization of much of the significant research that has been conducted which bears upon the development of the elementary school curriculum. Some seventy curriculum specialists co-operated in bringing together this important publication. What percent

of our elementary school principals are so familiar with the contents of this important summary that they are capable of exercising the leadership that should be expected from one in their positions in the re-shaping of the curriculum of the American public schools?

Knowledge already exists in the field of education which if intelligently applied would modify existing school practice with great benefit. Each year will make this fact, if it continues to exist, more difficult for the principal to justify. Not only the individual but the profession as a whole will pay the price unless educational research and educational practice are drawn closer together.

A heavy responsibility rests upon the principal to interpret the significance of research findings. Teachers too often lack the training, or the time and energy, so that they may be expected to apply the results of research wholly upon their own initiative. It is the principal who must be the chief arbiter between the results of educational investigation and the application of these results in the classroom. The place that the elementary principal will occupy in public esteem, in fact, the position of the teaching profession as a whole in future years will largely depend upon the success with which elementary school principals come to discharge this important function.

There are reasons that explain the lack of agreement between research findings and actual procedure in the classroom. Many of our principals lack training, and the salaries they have received have been too small so that adequate training could not be demanded. The multitude of clerical and administrative duties, which many principals have been forced to handle without clerical assistance of any kind, has often made it impossible for them to be little more than high grade clerks.

And then, we may as well face the fact, much of our educational research has not been worth a great deal—that is in immediate applicability to classroom practice. Worst of all, perhaps, has been the attitude of the public. A high type of service is not demanded of the principal in many communities. The public conscience too often does not set high standards for this office.

But these are explanations—excuses. So long as we are willing to be content with explaining why the principal has not lived up to the highest ideals—progress will be slow. These obstacles must be surmounted.

Compensation on a level that will justify more extended and careful training must be demanded. But if the demand is not fully met, the training must be obtained none the less, through summer school, extension groups, and careful use of professional reading time. Adequate office help and equipment must be striven for—but if it is not always striven for with success, this must not be a signal for settling into a routine rut, the edges of which obscure the view of an advancing science of education. If the public expects an unskilled job in the classroom, its viewpoint must be corrected by using every resource to make it a skilled performance. If some college professors are academic and impractical, drive them out of

business by failing to enroll in their courses. Learn to select what can be applied from what cannot be applied in the classroom.

Is it enough that the principal should use every reasonable means to bring the practice of his school into accord with the varified findings of educational research? Should he go further and conduct some research on his own initiative? The principal should be listed among those who understand and use research methods. By this it is not meant that he should undertake investigations merely as a means of assembling a certain amount of data which may be used as a basis for a magazine article. Rather, research should become the handmaiden of the principal in the intelligent administration of his school. Research is nothing more than an open-minded, systematic, and intelligent attempt to collect data that aid in the solution of some important problem. It is to solve the everyday practical problems of the school that the principal should make use of research methods.

Time will suffice for one illustration: A principal had this problem to deal with. One of his teachers found it impossible to maintain discipline. The class in which the most difficulty occurred was made up of two sections—a high and a low seventh grade. It was the brighter pupils who caused most of the trouble. Trouble began as soon as one section of the class was left to study while another section recited. The recitation on one side of the room would proceed for part of the period and then trouble would begin on the side supposedly studying. Principals will recognize the situation as a common one. The principal in this instance gave the usual suggestions such as the necessity of definite assignments, sufficient work to occupy the attention of the study group during the full study period, etc. He suggested particularly that the brighter pupils be given special and additional work. The teacher did not take kindly to the suggestion. She believed that one assignment was enough and that if the brighter pupils had extra time they should go over their lesson again so that they would not forget it so soon, and she added, "Those who learn quickly soon forget." This remark suggested the possibility of an experiment in which this teacher could cooperate.

The pupils of the class were assigned a definite piece of subject-matter of a character which could be readily and objectively tested. They were told to study this until they were sure they had it and then were to begin work on a second assignment. Each of the pupils was asked to keep a record of the time when they finished the study of the first assignment. The next day a test was given covering the work of the first assignment. Taken as a whole the results were clear. Those who spent the least time on study generally made the highest scores. A test given on the same subject-matter a week later verified this finding. The results of this experiment, although probably of little value from a strictly scientific viewpoint, were sufficient to effect a change in the teacher's viewpoint, so that she cooperated in the development of a new plan of school work

assignment, which attempted roughly to adjust the amount of work required to the ability of the pupils to learn.

Through this and other devices the teaching technic was improved until much of the disciplinary trouble encountered disappeared.

There are many practical problems which the principal encounters which may be solved through the application of research methods. In some cases the results of investigation will indicate their solution. In other cases the direction of solution will be indicated, and experimentation undertaken along the line indicated will reveal the answer.

We predict, therefore, that in the future the principal will be not only a user of the results of research but will more and more produce research findings as a byproduct of successful school supervision. The place the principalship, in fact, the place the whole teaching profession occupies in public esteem will largely depend upon the degree to which this prediction is fulfilled.

A SINGLE SALARY SCHEDULE FOR PRINCIPALS

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A single salary schedule for all principals immediately strikes the average superintendent as impossible. And it may be so. Certainly it is hard for some to think that the principal of a sixth grade building should receive the same compensation as goes to the master of a large high school. It never has been so. A high school prepares youth for college; its principal must know much to be able to direct a school which gets boys and girls ready for this distinguished life. Whereas an elementary school is just teaching reading and arithmetic. Any person with a little gumption, ability to do the rule of three, and pronounce words correctly is ready for such an elementary task. It is plain as a pike staff that little knowledge or skill is demanded, and for little skill there should be a corresponding reward.

The tenacity of tradition is always confounding. We claim to be reasoning beings; yet we are in bondage to yesterday and the day before. And it has taken us fifty years to get away from the old notion of the superior position of the high school, and we are not so far away yet that our vision is entirely cut off. However there are some who have come to the belief that to lead little children among the mysterious symbols of language and numbers—a region more magical than any traversed by Marco Polo, requires great wisdom and tact.

I almost said that more mystery and more adventures for the growing mind are to be found in this region than it will ever find on a college campus. Some persons have only heard fabulous stories of this new land; and for many teachers or principals of fifty years ago the wonders and the legerdemain of modern instruction are as little understood as the tricks of Keller or Houdini. Yet for decades the traditional cleavage between high and elementary schools has persisted. Why disturb peaceful slumbers?

And many have never seen a modern elementary school. It is not alone a place where the fundamental skills are established, but it has widened

its sphere of influence to include the entire social life of a community. Wherever disease lurks, clean-handed nurses are there. They show a clear way to the land of health. Wherever poverty and hunger bar the progress of little feet, the visiting teacher comes to remove the obstacles, and put courage where dark failure has come to dwell. The elementary school watches John and Ruth as they start out into the troubled world to make their way; and at each turn in the road through the early years, some teacher is there to counsel and cheer. For many little folks, the elementary school is the only instructor in the eternal truths of life; whatever they know of the things which are right and pure and of good report, they have learned in the elementary school. In the kindergarten is the loveliest democracy the world can see. It makes no difference whether the child comes in a limousine or with toes breaking into the light, whether his breakfast was made of black bread or white, whether her clothing was of cotton or of silk, the only requisite for companionship is willingness to "play with me" or to help. A light that radiates to all the streets and alleys to bring tidings of cheer; a power that forces back the hosts of evil and fights ever for righteousness, a haven of comfort for distressed mothers, a throbbing center of a better life for thousands is a modern elementary school in a great city. And he who leads such a school to the emancipation of the life of a community—who shall say his work shall not receive its reward? And shall it be less because he labors with little children who have not yet learned to read?

A single salary schedule for teachers is based upon two premises: that with equal training and equal experience, teachers shall receive the same salary, without regard to the position they hold in a system of schools. That is, a person with a college degree shall be paid the same salary for teaching in a kindergarten as for teaching in a high school. This does not assume that a kindergarten position should be given to a college man; for there might be persons better fitted for kindergarten instructors than some brands of college men—probably than any college man. It is intended to say that besides holding a diploma, a person must place behind this exhibit some very definite record of fitness for a particular assignment. Physics instructors would scarcely qualify as second grade teachers, though they hold an accepted certificate to teach in any grade of school in a state. Because teachers colleges center their efforts on the preparation of elementary teachers, and colleges of education are directing their energies toward preparation for high school instruction or administration, it rarely happens that a college woman is found teaching in elementary schools, and very few normal school graduates ever are found instructing in high schools. The law does not permit the latter. Though a single salary schedule exists, its application is really not so different from the ordinary schedule. Only the exceptional person gets out of the traditional position, either up or down. College degrees are held by high school instructors; teachers college diplomas are the common possession of elementary school teachers.

When we consider a salary schedule for principals, a third element enters into the composition: the size of the school. Should size of school be a

factor? or should it be disregarded? or, as a third possibility, should the size of school be so weighted that it would make the smallest modification of the schedule? It is generally regarded as axiomatic that the larger building demands the larger salary. The reason for this is that more labor is required of the principal of a large building; and a more convincing reason is that responsibility increases directly as population increases.

In adopting the principle that the big job demands the big salary, school men have agreed with business men. It does require the same complete knowledge to run a paper mill manufacturing five hundred tons a day as though manufacturing five thousand tons; yet no manager would be asked to accept his former salary when promoted to the larger place. Neither would the length of experience be the great factor. Business pays for results; and it does not seek far for the elements that contribute to bring about results. In business efficiency alone is considered, and efficiency alone gets the reward.

Yet some persons seem still to doubt it. The tendency today of youth is to demand a swivel-chair position before serving among those who labor standing at their task. And these young men show some hesitation about accepting the decision of the world, if it places them among the masses who hold the less responsible positions. The gray old world makes few mistakes. It squints its eyes, and scans the field, and makes its decisions with cautious care. Advance to the seats of power must still be made on foot.

As with business, so with schools. There are many who come among us carrying banners proclaiming years of training. They are not seeking to learn; they already know. The same wise world assigns them to their proper place. If they labor with gladness and earnestness, the old world says with quiet satisfaction, "You have been faithful over a few things; I will make you master over many things." But not until it knows.

And it surely is hard to know. May I take time to show how difficult it is to follow a schedule based upon training, experience, and size of school and grant to all principals what is due to them on account of their service to the schools. I use only Minneapolis schools in this study.

It should be said that there were so many inconsistencies in the salaries of these principals that three years ago a plan for their adjustment was adopted. It was to run through five years; at the end of that time the salaries of principals would follow the schedule. This schedule is based on preparation, length of experience, and size of school. Naturally there would be some degree of correlation among these factors and salary paid, but when a study is made which considers these factors in relation to efficiency, difficulties appear.

There are eighty principals of elementary schools, supervising and teaching. These were rated very carefully by those in position to know of their success. On this appraisal they were placed in four groups according to their efficiency. The first answer I tried to find was whether there was any correlation between efficiency and the number of teachers under the control of a principal.

And there seems to be. Minneapolis is not yet a city of large schools. This is due to the fact that while its population is about four hundred ten thousand, no exaggeration in this, and its day school population is seventy-five thousand, the city is spread out over fifty-four square miles of territory. To place schools within walking distance of little children has forced the city to build many schools. The average number of teachers in an elementary school is a little above 18. For the principals placed in the first group for efficiency, the average number of teachers is 23.2. Then the descent is rather uniform: the second group has an average of 18.7 to a principal; the third, 17.5; and the fourth, 12.7.

Yet the whole story is not told in these averages. In the first group the number of teachers to a principal ranges from eleven to thirty-one. And the question naturally arises shall the salary be based on the opinion of the administration as to efficiency or shall the size of the school control? In the second group, the range is from six teachers to twenty-nine; in the third group the variation is from six to thirty-two; in the fourth from three to forty-one. The variation increases as we descend in the ranks of efficiency, and some erratic conditions seem to need explanation. Beyond question length of service alone has resulted in placing some principals in important positions. I assume that Minneapolis is not unlike other cities; if so, a salary schedule based on size of school would make sweeping changes necessary. These cannot be made over a summer vacation.

The next question asked was: Is there any relation between years of experience as principal and his efficiency? The answer was not at all definite. The first group, the most efficient, averaged 12.95 years as principal; the second, 9.7; the third, 9.6; and the fourth, 8.6. This surely did not speak convincingly of increasing efficiency with the passing of the years.

Then when individual statements from each group are made, the answer becomes more confusing. The years of experience for the first group vary from 1 to 31; the second from 4 to 18; the third from 2 to 21; and the fourth from 1 to 24. Years of service is an element that always enters into any kind of schedule for principals or teachers. Yet here are principals in the fourth quarter who have been principals for 24 years and have received regular increases of salary until now they receive pay far above some in the first group for efficiency. Any administration would think several times before it put forth a schedule which would ignore the service of principals who were living in the third and fourth dynasty of superintendents.

The last answer sought was whether the kind of degree held was indicative of success. The noise was confusing; and when quiet was restored, the answer stood the whole matter on its head. For the fourth group, the group of lowest efficiency, led all the rest. In making the study only one question was asked: Has the principal a college degree or not? Most of the principals have done work beyond that indicated by the degree held; but this was not considered. The general condition is as accurately indicated by the single criterion as by a complicated evaluation of credits.

This was the situation. In the first quarter, the highest in efficiency, 25 percent had a Bachelor's degree or more; in the second, 30 percent had; in the third, 25 percent; and in the fourth, 40 percent. Two of the best principals had not even a normal school diploma. The logic of mere man would say quickly, the more education the more efficiency; the conclusion of this study might be stated by some cynic, the less education the more efficiency.

It is because of this lack of correlation between efficiency and college education that one is left in a quandary. Still we make credits and degrees a basis for changing salaries. A principal or a teacher would be better than human, if she did not listen to the clink of the coin and seek for advanced degrees. May it be a fact that study which neglects credits toward a degree and is given entirely to the promotion of efficiency in school work is the better preparation for a principal's functions. For of what use are many of the subjects, old English or chemistry, for example, in the equipment of an elementary school principal? Reason says that unrelated subjects have only a subsidiary value; and the facts, too, indicate that their value is very slight.

This study has led us into a morass. The way out is not clear. Yet a few things seem apparent. First, this group of elementary principals must lead toward the standardization of preparation for principalships. This obligation rests upon you directly. Lawyers do not ask legislatures to determine the standards of the legal profession. Doctors define quacks, and ostracise them from their society. Both professions lift higher their standards and enlarge respect for their calling. A great organization like yours must purge and purify the group, and win for it confidence and honor.

And it must establish objective appraisals for principals which can be evaluated. This involves a long careful study. So far little has been done, even less among principals than among teachers. No measuring stick or scales have been devised to evaluate the qualifications of a principal; and, even worse, we are not at all agreed as to the elements necessary to make a good principal, nor the amounts which should be compounded to form the efficient man. We must yet discover this formula.

And when it is known, ways must be devised by which its use and the financial advance of the principal will run parallel. This means that courses should be outlined by universities which are directed narrowly to the work of the elementary school. Too much work now leaves but a splash on the educational target. It does not penetrate. Possibly some believe that the problems of the elementary school are simple, and any man generally educated can solve them. It is not a sign of simplicity that a thing comes first. The amoeba come first; but what follows would be easy, could one know all about this tiny bit of life. The advancing importance of elementary problems is attested by the conspicuous position courses pertaining to them are finding in college catalogues. The study of childhood is intricate enough to challenge any intellect.

The time is not so far in the past when no man could be counted among those called educated unless he had been trained by Greek, Latin, and mathematics. Is modern training, which has discarded this regime, less effective? Few would make such a statement. The only requisite to power is labor. A wood pile does it for one; a gymnasium for another. A little child is as difficult a study as the Greek aorist. Universities should accept all worth-while courses for credit toward a degree. If they refuse this recognition, a system of education must be set up in each city so that study which leads to efficiency in service leads toward sufficiency of reward.

For study is the very life of a teacher. To neglect it is as dangerous as to avoid exercise. Such a course leads to atrophy and slow death. Just as the little pond without outlet or inlet becomes covered with its green scum of algæ, so the mind shut up grows sicklied o'er with dying life. But let a little happy stream pour its bright waters through the pond, and it sweetens all. And if there be even a little new thought poured through the mind, it transforms all. It is not so much intensive work for two years to secure a degree, as continuous study through many years that keeps life from atrophy and decay.

Whether there will be a single salary schedule for principals in my day is a problem. Much education of the public will be needed before it will accept any schedule which places all principals from elementary to high school on a parity. And much education of elementary principals themselves will be necessary to place them on a level with high school men today. Yet the greatest problem of all will be to determine the elements that enter into the composition of a successful principal and to establish definite standards for their measurement. This education you must give; and these studies this organization of elementary principals must make.

Hitch your wagon to a star. The rope will be long for some time; but the great mass of common people must always hear the trundle of wheels on solid ground.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES¹

Washington Meeting

Tuesday, February 23, 1926

Business session—In the business session of the Department of Elementary School Principals on Tuesday, February 23, presided over by President Ide G. Sargeant, a motion was carried that the president be empowered to appoint a membership secretary. A membership campaign is now on and the membership goal set for the Philadelphia meeting is 10,000.

Olive M. Jones spoke on the behavior problem child report and urged study of this field by elementary principals. Miss Jones suggested that a part of the yearbook could profitably be devoted to this study. A discussion of the yearbook and the work and expense involved followed; a motion was carried asking Arthur S. Gist to continue as editor of the yearbook and proceed with necessary preparations for the 1927 yearbook; also a discussion of the advisability of raising the dues to meet coming needs and demands brought out the opinions of those present.

¹ Minutes of the Philadelphia meeting of the Department will appear in the Department Bulletin.

Wednesday, February 24, 1926

Meeting of Committee on Standards and Training for Elementary Principals—On Wednesday morning, February 24, at 7:30 breakfast conference meeting, Chairman W. T. Longshore brought forth most profitable reports and discussions.

Doctor Judd, Doctor Hosic, and Dean Kemp, of California, led in discussion of standards and training for the elementary school principalship. Participating in the discussions were President Ide G. Sargeant, of New Jersey; Chairman Longshore, Kansas City, Mo.; W. A. Roe, New Jersey; Helen Shove, Minneapolis, Minn.; John Merrill, Detroit, Mich.; Anna Laura Force, of Denver, Colo.; Leonard Power, of Dallas, Texas; Jessie Fink, Grand Rapids, Mich.; Olive M. Jones, New York City; E. Ruth Pyrtle, Lincoln, Nebr.; Arthur Gist, Seattle, Wash.; C. V. Davis, Norfolk, Va.; F. H. Duffy, Steubenville, Ohio, and John K. Norton, head of the division of Research of the National Education Association.

Doctor Hosic gave the state of Ohio the credit of being ahead in the study and analysis of the principal's job.

All were agreed that the principal's time could most profitably be spent in child accounting, general study of the curriculum, follow-up methods, and intensive study of supervision of technic of instruction.

That clerical work in the principal's office should be done by office help, leaving the time of the principal for the more important duties, was the opinion of all.

Doctor Judd was of the opinion that the superintendent should require a periodic report of his principals on the work in their buildings—the best things going on and the methods used to accomplish this best.

Dinner meeting—The Department of Elementary School Principals' dinner was again one of the greatest gatherings of the winter meeting.

Some three hundred guests representing every state in the union gathered in the beautiful ballroom of the Raleigh Hotel. A local committee of Washington principals planned elaborate decorations of banks of tulips and pussywillows, and tulip place cards.

The gay spring decorations together with the many colorful evening gowns made a gay assemblage in the famous Washington ballroom.

Seated at the speaker's table were: The toastmaster, President Ide G. Sargeant and Mrs. Sargeant, Mary McSkimmon, president of the National Education Association, Superintendent Ballou and Mrs. Ballou, Olive M. Jones, Mary Sullivan, president of Department of Classroom Teachers, Katherine M. Blake, Doctor Judd, Doctor Hosic, Otis W. Caldwell, Mary Lackey, former presidents Power, McClure, Longshore, and Fink; also Vice-President Helen Shove; Secretary E. Ruth Pyrtle; Treasurer C. V. Davis; Anna Laura Force, and Arthur S. Gist, of the Executive Committee; General Lincoln C. Andrews, Mary A. Dilger, Joy Elmer Morgan, of the National Education Association; W. A. Roe, New Jersey; and F. H. Duffy, Ohio.

President Ide G. Sargeant in his most delightful after-dinner speech-making way called forth from all the guests at the speaker's table not only witty, entertaining, after-dinner stories and reminiscences, but words of real wisdom for our future guidance.

The roll was called by states, so every person present made a contribution to the evening's pleasure.

Thursday, February 25, 1926

Committee on Educational Progress—One of the most enthusiastic meetings of the entire convention in Washington of the Department of Superintendence and allied organizations was the breakfast held by the Committee on Educational Progress at the Washington Hotel, Thursday morning, February 25, 1926.

The meeting was presided over by the chairman, F. H. Duffy, principal, Roosevelt School, Steubenville, Ohio. The following were present: Ide G. Sargeant,

president; E. Ruth Pyrtle, secretary; Helen B. Shove, first vice-president; Jessie Fink, and W. T. Longshore, former presidents, all of the national Department; Florence Holbrook, Chicago; Rose Pesta, Chicago; Caroline Drisko, Kansas City, Kans.; Wm. B. Cornish, Stamford, Conn.; Jesse M. Carnine, Fargo, N. Dak.; J. E. Healy, Norfolk, Va.; Marion Parkhurst, Burlington, Vt.; Jessie McCord, Portland, Ore.; Edwin Y. Montayne, Philadelphia, Pa.; John Merrill, Detroit, Mich.; Eunice E. Parr, San Antonio, Texas; Robert St. Clair, St. Louis, Mo.; George C. Rogers, Charleston, S. C.; C. L. Miller, Cincinnati, Ohio; Kathryn Mansfield, Canton, Ohio; Mary N. Austin, Omaha, Nebr.; O. C. Griggs, Tulsa, Okla.; Gertrude Barr, Chattanooga, Tenn.; Edyth J. Brown, South Bend, Ind.; Worth McClure, Seattle, Wash.

Publicity of progress was the keynote sounded by the chairman as the objective to be attained by this committee. Expressions: "We will be remunerated in proportion to what we give."—*Shove*. "Set up an objective and attain it."—*Mansfield*. "A principal who is aggressive will create more friends than he will enemies."—*Duffy*. "Let the public know what problems you are working out in your community."—*Gist*. "More progress, more publicity, more members, 5000 principals at the Philadelphia meeting."—*Sargeant*. "Drove 900 miles in thirty-six hours to be at this meeting. Missouri is being shown."—*St. Clair*. "The public needs to be informed of the progress made by the elementary principals."—*Fink*. "One thousand teachers subscribed \$3 each to have Dr. Kilpatrick, of Columbia, give a series of four lectures, fostered by the Omaha Elementary Principals' Club."—*Austin*. "The elementary principals are doing as much if not more to improve the schools of the nation as any other group of people in the country."—*Longshore*.

The final report will be ready for the Philadelphia meeting and it is proposed to have every state and outlying possession in the Union represented. Three fourths of the states now have active committee members and very fruitful results are expected from this national study.

Department of Kindergarten Education

THE DEPARTMENT OF KINDERGARTEN EDUCATION grew out of a meeting of the Froebel Institute of North America, which met in connection with the Association's meeting in Madison, Wisconsin in 1884. See *Proceedings* 1884: 74. This department cooperates with the International Kindergarten Union, whose officers for 1926-27 are: *President*, Alice Temple, Chicago, Ill., *Secretary*, LuVerne Crabtree, Washington, D. C. The Union publishes a monthly magazine, *Childhood Education*.

The officers of the Department for the year 1926-27 are: *President*, Julia Hahn, Kindergarten-Primary Supervisor, Public Schools, San Francisco, Calif.; *Vice-President*, Marie Fowler, Kindergarten-Primary Supervisor, Public Schools, Kalamazoo, Mich.; *Secretary*, Frances Berry, Kindergarten-Primary Supervisor, Public Schools, Baltimore, Md. This Department meets once each year in June. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1884: 74	1893: 321-381	1902: 409-430	1910: 377-417	1918: 151-157
1885: 349-368	1894: 679-704	1903: 377-407	1911: 477-517	1919: 171-179
1886: 500-559	1895: 510-560	1904: 415-437	1912: 607-633	1920: 191-203
1887: 331-391	1896: 471-514	1905: 341-373	1913: 425-447	1921: 461-471
1888: 325-359	1897: 584-614	1906: 626-630	1914: 405-421	1922: 969-987
1889: 443-482	1898: 589-620	1907: 455-475	1915: 629-671	1923: 705-719
1890: 545-581	1899: 530-575	1908: 501-543	1916: 289-311	1924: 583-597
1891: 529-568	1900: 365-403	1909: 437-457	1917: 417-431	1925: 478-504
1892: 253-303	1901: 500-540			

THE EDUCATION OF THE NURSERY SCHOOL CHILD

HARRIET M. JOHNSON, DIRECTOR OF THE NURSERY SCHOOL, BUREAU OF
EDUCATION EXPERIMENTS, NEW YORK CITY

IN DISCUSSING the education of the nursery school child the question of our purpose is raised. What are the objectives? These are expressed in almost as many ways as there are schools. In answer to a questionnaire sent out by the bureau of educational experiments there were schools that announced themselves engaged in a program as general and remedial as "making children fit to live with" and others that described their purpose as "training children in correct habits." It is obvious that these statements did not fairly represent the schools, their activities, or ideals. They represented only an attempt to reduce an elaborate point of view to the succinct statement required by the limits of a questionnaire.

Today I should like to approach the question from a still less specialized basis and discuss the education of children from the point of view of growth. From this angle let us see where we are led. What does it mean in terms of equipment and set up—of routine, of health, of program and of teaching?

The first needs of growth are of course for food, rest, sleep and fresh air. They are as vital considerations for education as for health and mean a new sort of responsibility for schools. A discussion of these principles of health and hygiene and their incorporation in a teaching program would more than fill the space allotted for my paper. I am choosing instead to take up some of the less obvious growth requirements which are related more nearly to the problems of all nursery schools.

The special job that the baby has before him, is to develop an adequate physique and to learn to use it efficiently. He never puts more concentrated or more successful effort into anything, than he uses during his first two years in this problem and he comes through with a more or less perfected walking technic. We wish to see this first pattern—represented by the tottering, swaying, stumbling walk of the fourteen to eighteen months old baby, elaborated to the ability of a sure, steady control of the body in walking, running, jumping, skipping, galloping, climbing, and balancing, and further elaborated to the use of the entire musculature in combination with materials so that the management of the body will not have to be a matter of concern but will be taken care of automatically. We wish this not only because of the physical advantage of being muscularly fit but also because of the social and psychic advantage. There seems to be no manner of doubt that failure to function physically on the level of the group with which one is associated stands out as one of the chief causes of maladjustment, frustration, and conflict among adults and children alike, not only because of the lack of power but because of the effect of failure upon the personality. The child with a definite defect, like poor vision or hearing, a crippled hand or foot has a very obvious handicap. I believe that a reluctance or inability to use the body freely in vigorous play

with a variety of materials calls also for adjustment and tends to rouse a compensatory mechanism which is likely to interrupt the process of harmonious development. May I repeat, stating the thesis from the positive rather than the negative angle? If a child is given experiences in an environment which bids him carry on vigorous activities with the big muscles of his body, he will develop something beyond the ability to use and control his muscles. There will be less difficulty in his meeting play situations on equal terms with his mates. He can keep up with them in running, he can later meet the conditions set up by games, he can attack an adventurous situation without fear and his body obeys the demands made by him upon it. He has not to concern himself with the effort and strain of forcing an unused or unready mechanism into new situations. Beyond this he has an outlet for the urge to general motility which can be said to be characteristic of the human organism. So much for the value in development of motor experiences.

I am emphasizing the value to the organism of the development of the larger muscles. There is not time to discuss the point of view which we hold that the finer coordinations should not be stressed in the early years.

What else do these growth needs suggest? The child's incessant tendency to touch and to feel, to investigate, to handle, and to manipulate indicate that materials which lead to sense discriminations should be provided. Herrick, in his *Neurological Foundations of Animal Behavior* says, "Never can our thinking transcend the realm of sense experience. The most abstruse metaphysical speculation, in common with the highest flight of poetic fancy and the keenest esthetic appreciation, are earth bound within the limits set by our physical sensory equipment." Color and weight, consistency, size, taste, and such qualities the child comes to know and use in his play if we plan for it in our equipment.

Growth is to what end? We seem sometimes to overvalue height and weight and think of growth too largely in respect to increase in bulk. The growth we are seeking to assure for our children means development in power and control—control of the body, a growing power to deal with the environment and to understand their relationship to it, with a resulting harmony in functioning. Our ambition for the children whose futures we are helping to shape is that they shall use to the fullest possible extent the powers given them by their physical and nervous structures, and that they shall be offered an opportunity to learn to modify the environment to their needs on the one hand, and to adjust themselves to its conditions on the other.

The individual comes into the world with a more or less adequate structure. He inherits besides, a tendency to develop certain growth patterns which are more or less distinctive and individual. The conditions that have surrounded him from birth have affected for good or ill his development. Equipped with this structure, this inheritance and this conditioning, the child enters the nursery school and proceeds to react in individual ways to the environment. We can study his equip-

ment—the tools that are his for a lifetime. We can help to make them more effective. We can observe and modify his behavior, but between these two factors lies the force which largely determines how he shall use his equipment for living—how dynamic shall be his behavior and personality. Woodworth has called this force the “drive” and it has to do with the life of feeling and emotion—with the affective life. We recognize it in our enthusiasms, in our affections, in our zeal, in our passions, in our ability to sustain effort, in short, in our interests. It also must be conserved and protected so that the affective or emotional life may be maintained in integrity and in spontaneity and so that it shall share in the integrative process. Stability in physical and nervous structure plus stability in affective impulse will result in an adequately functioning human being, and that to my mind is the goal toward which we should strive in early education.

A third need of growth is suggested by the foregoing discussion of the affective life. A child must learn to mingle with his kind and to establish relationships with them. They are a part of his environment. As he becomes able to make these relationships successful, satisfactory to himself and to his mates, he is so much further along in the integrative process. The nursery school offers him that opportunity for social contact and its teachers must see that the relationships that develop serve the need of his age and the stage of maturity to which he has arrived.

These then are the outstanding needs of growth which the nursery school should serve: the need for motor experiences, the need for sensory experiences, and the need for social experiences.

Let us take the next step now and ask where this classification leads us in the choice of equipment and method. In the first place may I call your attention to the fact that I have said need for motor, sensory and social *experiences*, not training. The two words affect one quite differently it seems to me. One is a genial, comradely, stimulating sort of word and the other is dogmatic and forbidding. In planning an environment you would proceed quite differently if you were attempting to train children to perform certain specific acts than you would if you were called upon to give them opportunities for spontaneous activities through which they would gain certain experiences. I realize, however that training is commonly used because it implies fitting the individual for the situations which he is to meet. We need not quarrel with the word if we agree that the teacher's part is to make sure that he gets an opportunity to deal with real situations in a real way. Training he will get in the process, but the driving force will be his own interests. We find justification enough in pedagogy for our emphasis upon the value in educational method of first hand experiences. Let us go back to biology to get our background in terms of growth. To quote from Herrick again, “Life is more than immediate reaction to stimuli. . . . Experience is not something to which the organism is passively subjected. In response to stimulation it reaches out actively to meet the exciting

agent, but it does more than this, *it is constantly seeking new contacts.*" That is, the impulse to add to one's experience is a spontaneous impulse of the living organism and one which must be considered if the needs of growth are to be served.

Now then to return to our question, with these fundamentals in mind how shall we plan and equip our nursery, what part shall our teachers play? In the first place we shall avoid static materials, things which serve a limited use and which are restricted to the use for which they were made. A set of blocks planned so that a certain pattern can be constructed is an example. We shall choose instead genuine play material that will give children an opportunity to expand energy in the use of the big muscles and which as much as possible carries an appeal to children of a wide age range, that is, which has the possibility of progressive use.

It is unnecessary to enumerate the materials which should be included in the nursery school equipment. There is no reason why they should be standardized or identical in every school. Things with which a child can deal in his own way, through the use of which he can acquire skill and with which he can dramatize in simple fashion experiences of his own—these seem to be essentials and as one watches children, one's imagination suggests ways of providing them.

One realizes how technical and elaborate is the process of riding a kiddy-kar, of coasting on a wagon only when one watches the young child's approach to it. He does not reach a finished pattern till he has learned that a kiddy-kar is a vehicle, not a hobby horse, that it can be propelled and steered by the person who sits upon it, and that it can be used in various combinations—with a load, with a cart attached, to coast upon, and in company with children.

The dynamics of such situations as those presented by the seesaw, the spring boards, the steps and the slide are quite unknown to very young children. It is the unusual child, however, who does not show a definite and persistent drive toward such materials and who does not with no adult interference or direction, put himself through the process of acquiring and maturing a patterned response to them. Children could be "taught" the use of pieces of apparatus by being actively helped through the initial stages of each experience and in this way the completion of a matured pattern might be reached more quickly. This has to be done sometimes with a thwarted child. If patterns are set for the child to follow we leave out of the educational process a very significant factor which we can only call creative. The child's self-initiated attack upon materials may not result in a new method or a new product but because it springs spontaneously from his inner resources it is original with him and acts therefore as an urgent stimulus to further creative work.

Social experiences would come to children who are brought together in a group whether we planned for them or not. The important question for us to consider is how social contacts meet the needs of growth.

It seems to me that gregarious or sociable more exactly expresses the impulse of children toward each other than social does.

In the earliest response of children to a social situation there is shown a keen delight in the mere presence of their kind. A little later contacts are welcomed, contacts however of a fleeting nature. As we think of our nursery school group the social impulse consists for the majority of its members, of play with or about the same materials at the same time. There is a very definite group impulse but it seems to consist of no real organization or form and makes no demands upon the children for a sustained social technic. During the last months when our children are about three, and increasingly in the three and four year old groups, there is found developing well-sustained dramatic play or co-operatively planned and executed schemes. This type of play seems to me to be really social in the sense that it has form which requires a technic.

A very generalized sort of dramatization is often carried out by children of varying ages which is immature and demands little from those participating. For example, one child will throw blocks and boards in a big packing box, call, "Here goes the big boat," and make noises of whistle and bells. He will attract the entire group, several of whom will enter into the play realistically, adding details from their own experience. The next younger will probably climb in and join in making boat noises and in calling "Goodbye", but will seem not to carry the scheme in mind. They will not wait for the boat to reach the dock but will dash into the waves and back again on board. The sixteen and eighteen months old children will swarm about getting satisfaction from the presence and the sound of the other children and stimulated by them to physical activity.

There are two other kinds of social play which show a more mature pattern and I think teachers should be very clear in their minds about their relative value in development. One has its source, I believe, in an effort at domination and can often be traced to an inadequacy, a disbalance in functioning; that is, it is an effort at compensation. It takes the form often of a "maternal," sophisticated interest in other children, in demonstrative advances to them, solicitude about their clothing and attempts to help them and to direct their activities, or of absorption in holding their attention in play of a dramatic form. This type of social play demands a passive, acquiescent attitude on the part of one actor or it results in friction and emotional strain.

The second type is concerned chiefly with materials which are used to reconstruct and rehearse in a naive way situations which the child has met. It helps him to organize his experiences and other children are called in as real cooperators. The child who can organize this kind of dramatic play and can include his mates in it shows real power and gets from it an effective satisfaction that is genuine and developing.

An excerpt from our notes will illustrate this kind of dramatic play and show different stages of ability to enter into a scheme. Charles,

two years, seven months, brought three paving blocks out of the shelter, one at a time, and set them on three sides of a small table. He then called loudly, "Come and eat dinner—get all cold." He did not attempt to get the attention of the children any further when no one responded. When Karl, three years old, came up later and began to use the blocks and table in his own way, Charles remarked, "Don't take dinner off," but did not continue his protest. Charles did no more than set the stage. It was an incipient drama, but he had not matured enough to organize his own ideas or to get other children into his scheme. Karl arranged the blocks in a pile on the floor, set two pails of pebbles on them and drew up a little stool in front. He then proceeded to seat himself on the stool and thrust a hand down into each pail. After he had taken his turn he called two other children into his play. By this time the adults had recognized the game as a rehearsal of the electrocardiogram experience the three children concerned had been through several weeks before. Karl had now elaborated his scheme by adding a machine off at one side. It consisted of another block set on a table at some distance away. When he had his patient's hands well immersed he would retire to the "sheen" and scrape and scratch on the side of the block to "make sheen go." It was interesting to see that Charles, two years and seven months, fell in with the idea almost at once. He took his turn at the machine when it was Karl's turn at the pail and when they both took pebbles out of the pails and put them back it was Charles who said, "More hot water." Ralph, two years, ten months, though he had been with the others to the doctor, showed no evidence that the play recalled an experience of his own. He was inclined to do no more with the pails than to put his hands in and incurred Karl's displeasure by tipping them over, or by introducing other irrelevant material. Here are three stages illustrated. Charles dramatized but his impulse was not sharply enough defined and elaborated so that he felt the need of active cooperation from other children. He could, however, follow Karl's lead and make his own contribution to the dramatic content. Ralph, on the other hand, though older than Charles, seemed to be in a less mature stage. The performance showed rather an elaborate recall of detail and ability to carry on cooperative play in a group as young as ours.

If we believe that these pictures do represent characteristic play of young children and that they have significance as indicating steps in the maturing of a social growth pattern, we must consider it in planning our social environment. Our experience leads us to believe that social contacts should be encouraged to remain on the lower levels as long as possible and that the child's experiments with his environment should be made first and chiefly with materials. Think for a moment of the demands that membership in a truly social group makes upon the individual. Besides the maturity in social perception, there is required a proficiency in language which makes it possible to communicate ideas. In a mixed group there are children who can not sustain conversation

with their peers. M. Piaget, a psychologist in the Jean Jacques Rousseau Institute at Geneva, who has written an interesting study on "The Thinking and the Language of the Child," says that very little of the language of the six year olds whom he was observing took the form of real communication of ideas. His children seem somewhat behind ours in that particular, but that type of language is without doubt the last to develop.

We have found also that children whose attention and interest are most absorbed by social contacts of a sophisticated form are those whose growth seems to be interrupted by fluctuations in emotional tone and by unevenness in the development of certain abilities in dealing with materials which are encouraged by the nursery environment. For this reason we believe that the nursery school program should be so arranged that individual play impulses can be carried on without interruption, that the children's schemes can be protected from encroachment, that a division of the group can be made or that a child can play entirely alone if he seems to need it. This does not mean that we do not value the social experience that the school association brings children. It is only that we believe that it must be tempered to the capacity of the individual on the one hand and of the group on the other, and that as far as possible the social relationships shall be kept at the level which seems appropriate to the ages of the children.

Miss Hill will discuss the preparation which must be given teachers of the nursery school child. The opportunities offered by the nursery school for adult education have attracted two groups, those interested in research problems and those interested in student training. It seems sometimes as if the interest in the nursery school as a teaching opportunity and problem had been relegated back stage by the urgency of the newer interests. The teaching profession is challenged again as it has been repeatedly in the past to instruct the public which must support this latest venture in education and at the same time to meet the demands made upon it for a wider and more profound understanding of the sciences which have to do with child development and hygiene.

The child in the nursery school has the opportunity to develop strength and control in the management of his body and skill in a variety of technics. He has the opportunity to play out in a dramatic way the experiences which he has had and in this way to organize his content and see it in its relationships. The teacher must know enough of child development in general and of each individual as well to be aware when that process is going on profitably and adequately, when to help one child, when to put another on his own resources, when to give new or different materials and when to offer additional and related experiences. Conceiving of growth as a dynamic process, he must evaluate education by the opportunities it gives to children for increase in physical power and control, for increase in harmony and integration of the affective life and for exercise of the creative impulse in dealing with the environment.

PARENTS AND THE NURSERY SCHOOL

ABIGAIL A. ELIOT, DIRECTOR OF THE RUGGLES STREET NURSERY SCHOOL
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The fundamental aim of nursery schools is everywhere the same. They are seeking the best possible development of very little children, physically, mentally, and spiritually. Without the active cooperation of parents this end cannot be achieved. Without their interest and help no nursery school can do its work really well. In the field of physical health this is evident. A child will not grow as he should just because the best of food, sleep, exercise, and other care are provided in the nursery school for a few hours a day. Such care must be given twenty-four hours a day seven days a week, if he is to be truly well. In the field of mental and spiritual health this is equally true. The task of developing fine character and personality is also a twenty-four-hour-a-day job.

A little three year old girl who had been in the nursery school four or five weeks was still whiny, sulky, complaining, the corners of her mouth turned down habitually. The happy, joyous atmosphere of the school, the kindness of the teachers, had done almost nothing to make her happy and spontaneous. She carried about with her the same unpleasant, unhappy disposition as when she came. We talked with the mother about it, and, because already the school had won her confidence, she was ready to tell how much she had been troubled by the same characteristics at home. The younger child, a boy with dimples and a charming smile, was just the opposite; everyone liked him and no one liked Priscilla. The mother punished Priscilla severely for whining, whipped her, and all the world made much of Georgie. Priscilla's unpleasant characteristics got worse and worse. With this knowledge of the home relationships, it was clear what advice to give the mother. There should be no more punishment for whining and sulking, just a complete ignoring of it, and there should be plenty of attention for Priscilla in her moods of pleasantness. She should be "made of" just as much as Georgie. The mother agreed to try it, and did. In three weeks there was a decided change in the child's outlook on life and at the end of six months she seemed a different child. Six months later yet, after having been three months in kindergarten, Priscilla came with her mother to visit the nursery school. She was a radiant, beaming child and her mother said "Priscilla is almost always happy now." This change could not have been brought about by the nursery school working alone. Working with the parents success was possible.

The importance of the parents' part in guiding the development of young children cannot be overestimated, for the influence of a child's home is the greatest influence in his life. There are two reasons for this; first that the child spends more hours in the home than anywhere else even than in an all day nursery school, and second that the emo-

tional tie and therefore the emotional drive is incomparably greater at home. The child (except those few much neglected children who are left most of the time to nurse maids) sees more of his parents than of anyone else, and each moment of this contact leaves a supremely lasting impression on his development.

Of necessity, then, if nursery schools are to succeed in the work for which they are organized they must have the full, intelligent, and active cooperation of the parents. During the five years of my experience in nursery schools this fact has become more and more clear. There is no use trying to do good work with children in a nursery school unless the parents' aims and methods at home are in harmony with the aims and methods of the nursery school. One illustration will make this clear. At the Cambridge nursery school there was a child whose mother (a college graduate) frankly said she wasn't interested in children of this age. She rarely visited the school. She did not take seriously reports and advice given her by the teacher, and apparently made no attempt to handle more wisely the child's peculiar emotional problem of fits of violent anger alternating with dull moods in which the child's attention wandered aimlessly from one thing to another. During a whole year the teachers could see no appreciable advance in the correction of these difficulties. They found it to be a hopeless task without the mother's cooperation. The child was normal mentally and not a particularly difficult child to handle, but the nursery school was working against insurmountable odds. The mother, expecting the school to do everything, became dissatisfied with the results and the child did not return the second year. We do not want children of such parents in the nursery school, and we were glad that this child was withdrawn. This was an unusually striking instance of the difficulties which arise when the parents are not truly interested in what the nursery school is doing for their children. But there have been enough similar situations to make us realize that such an attitude must not continue, for the success of the work of a nursery school depends on its power to give parents an opportunity to learn the needs of their little children and how they can be met, to improve and strengthen the relation of parents and children.

How can nursery schools bring about the cooperation which makes this power possible? They can do it primarily and fundamentally by establishing mutual confidence and respect between school and home. The parents must feel sure that the nursery school is working for the good of the children. If this is not so they should not send them to the nursery school. The teachers must feel sure that every mother loves her child and truly wants to do her best for him. This relation of confidence is the only possible foundation on which to build in asking and giving advice, in making and taking suggestions. It is the essential element in the nursery school's important task of teaching parents to be better parents. With this relationship established, many methods can be found by which parents can learn whatever the nursery school may have to teach. In our

two schools, the Ruggles Street nursery school and the Cambridge nursery school, we use the practical methods of individual conferences, observation, and practice by the mothers at the nursery school, and mothers' meetings. I shall describe separately these methods as they work out in detail in the two schools.

I shall begin with the Cambridge nursery school. The children in this school come from families where the fathers are professional men, the mothers highly educated women, in many cases college graduates. When parents apply for admission for their children they are given a copy of the "Policy of the Cambridge nursery school." The first article reads that the policy of the school is,

To render to families of the community an important service by

1. Providing a social group for little children in an appropriate environment and under trained and affectionate control.

2. Offering to mothers of these children an opportunity for observation and study of their own children in connection with others and an opportunity for discussion and conference with the directors, the school physician, and with suggested outside specialists, on any problems of health or behavior.

3. Supervising constructively the afternoon play of a limited group of older children.

Article five says that the policy of the school is,

To inform parents that the nursery school is a cooperative organization, dependent upon the active interest and support of its members, and to see that each mother feels her responsibility. If for good reason a mother cannot assist at the school session she should realize that attendance at mothers' meetings is the more imperative. It is contrary to the principles of this school that it should be used as an expedient or as a temporary convenience.

Article six, section four, says,

There shall be an assisting mother at the school daily from 9.00 A. M. to 12.00 noon, and from 2.30 P. M. until 5.00 P. M. In case of enforced absence of the mother, she shall provide a substitute from a list prepared at the beginning of each year, and shall notify the director of the change.

Thus, at the beginning, the parents realize that help and cooperation is expected. Most of them welcome this as a most valuable and interesting part of the nursery school and eagerly seek to do their share.

At the beginning of the year a plan is made for each mother to spend at least half a day a week in the nursery school. The mother who is "on duty" observes or helps as the teacher in charge sees fit. Some of the mothers after a very short period of observation become excellent helpers, and dressed in their smocks as the teachers are, would not be distinguishable from them to the unenlightened visitor. Other mothers who have not natural gifts in dealing with little children are not so readily made to be of real practical service. Such a mother (I am happy to say they are in the minority) can render valuable service to herself and the school by taking carefully planned notes of the development of certain activities or certain children. None of the mothers observe all the time. They all "help" to a greater or less extent, for it is only by practice that they really

come to know the point of view of the nursery school. In nearly every case the mothers delight in their assigned time to be "on duty," and most of them jump at the occasional chance to come more than once a week. During the past winter, however, there was a mother who made one excuse after another to get out of coming on her assigned morning. It became clear that she simply could not bear to think of being in a group of such little children. She was told that she must come, or withdraw her child. She came, evidently feeling each time she came less like a fish out of water, and during the third or fourth morning she said to the teacher in charge, "I wonder if all little children are as charming as these!" Subsequent developments show that that mother has not been entirely made over in her attitude toward little children, but there has been decided gain. Being "on duty" is the very best way for parents to learn from the nursery school. By such observation and practice they are able to establish better standards of behavior for their children, to see how the teacher of experience handles problems, to watch their own child's reactions in a group, to learn new ways of helping their children to develop well.

The second method by which parents learn is the method of individual conferences. At Cambridge the mothers have these conferences with the teacher in charge whenever they or the teacher wish them. Typewritten reports of the children's development in school are given the parents every three months. Every mother is more interested in her own child than in any other, so the reports of her child and the conferences when his problems are being discussed in detail are vital to her. I was visiting the Cambridge nursery school one day recently and the teacher in charge said to me after a while that the mother on duty that day would like to talk with me about her child. They laid before me certain difficulties with which they had been working for months, and asked my advice. A few suggestions, a great deal of encouragement, a feeling that someone who has known many children and studied their needs is deeply interested in this particular child, goes a long way to put such a mother on the right road. This particular mother has taken suggestions eagerly, and has made great and far-reaching changes in her method of handling her child. It is her attitude toward the school and the school's attitude toward her which makes such a conference possible.

We have mothers' meetings at the Cambridge nursery school and they are most interesting occasions. The mothers take turns presenting a subject which they have studied in the nursery school, for example interest and attention, discipline, anger, etc., a large variety of topics. As these mothers are educated women the subjects are often handled well, and interesting discussion follows with the school and the children as illustration.

One more step in cooperation and therefore in opportunity for parents to learn at the Cambridge nursery school is that the school itself is cooperative. It is incorporated and all the parents are members of the corporation and feel a responsibility in its success. Cooperation is a condition of membership in this corporation. A child is discharged from the school if

the parents do not cooperate. It is through cooperation that the parents learn.

At the Ruggles Street nursery school we also have conditions of membership. They are not written down as "Policy" and presented to the parents when they apply, but they are just as real. The children at this school come from homes where the parents are mostly first generation Americans of a variety of racial and national extraction, Irish, Negro, Italian, Jewish, etc. The fathers are skilled and unskilled workmen, the mothers busy homekeepers with large families. When the parents apply for admission for the children, we explain that we want them to know all about what is done in the school and that we want them to come and visit. After the children are admitted we expect certain standards of cooperation. We expect that the children will be kept clean and will be brought to school and called for regularly. We expect the parents to come to the school when the doctor examines the children and on request for conference or observation. We expect them to respond to suggestions regarding the health of the children. We expect them to be willing to talk over any difficulties which may arise, and to try to improve their standards of care in those particulars where the school's knowledge of the child shows need of improvement. In short, we take for granted sincere interest in the children's welfare, and we expect interest in the nursery school's ways of dealing with children and willingness to learn. From nearly every mother we get such cooperation. Those from whom we do not get it in reasonable measure are told that we cannot keep their children. The parents (mothers and fathers alike), hard working, often overwhelmed by family cares, are almost always deeply appreciative and grateful, full of a great love of their children which in most instances readily becomes more intelligent love, when the contact with the nursery school is made. They are ready to learn and eager to help.

Our methods for teaching these parents are the same as at the Cambridge nursery school. Here the individual conferences bring the best results, and these we have constantly and whenever needed. Someone brings the child each morning and calls for him at night, usually the mother. It is easy and natural to put in a word of guidance at such times. Occasionally these conferences become a little more extended and formal. For instance, recently I called a mother into my office to talk over with care the question of a tendency in her child to be sly and deceitful. She was an intelligent colored woman, refined and fairly well educated. She listened with interest to what I had to say and quickly said that she had noticed the same tendency at home. I asked her if she ever deceived the child in order to gain her wish with him or in order to avoid a scene. She said that she did so sometimes and explained on what occasions. Of course I made the connection between these two things clear to her. It was a real revelation, she had never thought of such a connection before. She thanked me heartily and assured me she would stop deceiving the child. About once a week ever since, this mother has inquired anxiously whether the

child is less deceitful in school. He has improved, though of course slowly. Conferences with any of the teachers are held whenever desired. The dietitian confers with the parents about the children's eating and sleeping at home. She gives each mother a little book with a page for each day in a week to be filled in with food, bed hour, etc. This, when returned, furnishes an excellent basis for a conference. If, as occasionally happens, there is a mother who cannot come to the school we go to her in her home for conference, and we always call in the homes when the children are ill. We know the parents individually, and in this way we do the best of our teaching. Simple, natural, friendly conference brings confidence and mutual trust, and on each side a desire and an ability to learn.

At Ruggles Street also we want the mothers to observe and help as they do at Cambridge. If the nursery school is to be, as we wish it, a demonstration to mothers of what is right care for little children they must see the school at work. Mothers who have to take all the care of a large family, including a baby in arms, cannot easily give regular time at the school. We do plan, however, for most of the mothers to observe and for many of them to help. If there is a special problem connected with a child at home, perhaps difficulty in eating, we make a special point of having the mother present at the time of that activity in school. The mothers enjoy visiting and enjoy helping and the result of such close contact with the school is always a gain in understanding. The more fully the mothers understand what the nursery school is doing, the better for the development of the children.

Mothers' meetings at Ruggles Street are very informal. A formal meeting with a speaker teaches the mothers very little, I believe. We gather about a table and discuss a topic connected directly with little children, richly illustrated by the mothers themselves from their observation of their own children. At a recent meeting we talked about self-help, trying to discover how young the children could begin to help themselves. One mother had her two weeks old baby with her and she told us that even at that age he could turn his head toward her when she took him in her arms to nurse. The same mother told us that her child, who is just three years old, has taken off and put on his own shoes every time it needed to be done, ever since Christmas, a few months after he entered the nursery school. Other mothers added their contributions to the discussion and finally, by questioning, the reasons why self-help is valuable were brought out.

All this is an old, old story to kindergartners. The nursery school is only reemphasizing the need and the possibility of real cooperation between parents and teachers in the vital work of guiding child development. Perhaps the nursery school sees more clearly than any school for older children the necessity of such cooperation because the younger the child the more completely he is integrated. At this early age it is more obviously true that what the school wishes to accomplish cannot be done by the school alone. We must educate parents to give the best possible care to these tiny

children physically, mentally, and spiritually, or the children will not really get it, for the children are what the homes are making them. If nursery schools can open the eyes of parents to better aims and methods in the care of their children they will truly succeed in the work they wish to do.

THE EDUCATION OF THE NURSERY SCHOOL TEACHER

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The nursery school, the youngest and latest member to enter the educational family, came into existence to meet many changing conditions in present-day social life, especially in our large, overcrowded cities.

Preschool education has taken on many forms, but whether it be infant schools, kindergartens, Montessori's houses of childhood, *École Maternelle*, *Jardin des Enfants*, nursery schools, or day nurseries, they are largely due to the efforts of most civilized countries to devise some means for protecting young children from neglect, physical and mental ill-health and crime. Some means of reducing both mortality and morbidity became increasingly necessary when the hardships of life multiplied under the new industrial régime so greatly facilitated by the application of steam to the processes of manufacture and mining.

Home and family life disintegrated rapidly as industry passed out of the small workshop and home into the factory. The wage which loomed large in the eyes of the domestic and agricultural workers in the villages and on the farms, dwindled pitifully when homes no longer had their own gardens, when the individual dwelling was merged in the tenement, when the high cost of food and rent could not be met by the wage of the father. Even a bare existence for the family demanded the wages of mother as well as father, and the older sisters and brothers entered the mills when barely able to toddle in order to add their quota in the struggle for survival.

In these disintegrating conditions we see the beginnings of several of our most terrible and still unsolved social problems—namely, the slums with their tenements, child labor, and the “out-family mother.”

The youngest members of the family—those too young for the schools of the day, too inefficient to pay in factory production—were deserted by society and left to the mercy of chance, disease, and the immorality of the street. The school was utterly oblivious or blind to the situation then, as now. The only institutions which saw the deserted preschool child with eyes of pity and mercy were the church and philanthropic agencies and societies. These made sporadic efforts to stem the tide of mortality and morbidity in preschool children—in institutions good, bad, and indifferent, but at least merciful and sympathetic.

Another cause for the modern rapid progress in preschool education may be traced to the health movement due to health surveys of armies in preparation for, or following, devastating wars. Later this crept into the

schools, as a preventive measure, and it is now sweeping all civilized countries where all sorts of health education is offered. Finally the doctor and nurse found their way into the school, and medical inspection quickly led to the discovery of the preschool years as the breeding period starting most of the physical and mental ills that cause such serious damage later in the school and in life. Maternal ignorance and poorly paid industry in financing family life were the two chief causes for the bad start that preceded the child's entrance into school life. Society gradually awakened to the fact that something had to be done and only two alternatives seemed possible. Either homes must be changed and parents educated in child care or some institution must be devised which would rescue the young child from the slum and tenement for at least a part of each day. As the latter seemed more possible than the former, all sorts of efforts were made in all civilized countries to provide institutional care and education for the preschool child.

A third cause for preschool education was the so-called new psychology—psychoanalysis, which, in spite of its defects and unscientific generalizations, did call attention to the importance of the habits or mental health in the preschool years to which a large proportion of the mental and emotional disturbances of later years were easily traced.

There are many other reasons for the modern interest in the protection and care of the preschool child, including the changing status of the mother, but limited play space in our large cities, the increasing tendency, or necessity for the substitution of the small and smaller flat or apartment for the separate home and yard, are among the causes for transferring part of the daily care of the two to four child from the home to the school.

A New Conception of a Curriculum for Preschool Children—The nursery school with its all-round care of the two to four year old child is leading to a new, broader, and more scientific curriculum for the preschool child than any preceding preschool movement. This is due to several causes. First and foremost, being the newest and most recent effort at curriculum making, it has come into existence at a happy moment in having at its disposal the results of scientific research in medicine, psychology, psychiatry, nutrition, etc.—knowledge never available for any of the varied preceding attempts. Not only is knowledge in all these fields available, but their research workers are eager to help and cooperate in this new educational movement as never before in the history of education. Experts in medicine, health-work, feeding, psychology, psychiatry, sociology, etc., see in these early years rare opportunities to discover the causes of later educational and social problems, and are more than eager to offer their services in investigations leading to corrective and curative measures. This is one of the most hopeful aspects of preschool education.

In the third place the very early age which comes under the care of the nursery school focuses attention upon the very foundations of physical and emotional well-being. The school has made a fetch of the intellect at the cost of physical and emotional health. While the two-year-old child has

an intellect which must be respected and developed, the demands of his body and emotional health are so insistent that they cannot be forced into the background. These facts, in addition to the longer school day in the average nursery school, will not permit the nursery school teacher to overlook the tremendous importance of the rôle of food, sleep, emotional poise, correct habits of elimination and open-air work and play in his educational procedure. If these foundations of physical and mental health are neglected at the nursery school period, the whole personality is upset and the young child shows immediately in unmistakable and convincing form the evidences of negligence. When a school curriculum includes the problem of diet and the feeding of babies two and three meals a day, the teaching of rest and sleep habits, regularity in open-air work and play, the art of parental guidance and speech correction, in addition to all the school subjects, we can see why it takes longer at present to educate a good nursery school teacher than one in any other field. However, as the new curriculum of the nursery school gradually influences the kindergarten and primary grades, as it can and must, it will require an equally long time to train teachers in these fields.

Society, in the past, took it for granted that mothers were prepared to assume full responsibility for the education of the preschool child along these fundamental lines. To question this theory of maternal ability in these early years was frowned upon as an heretical and dangerous social policy. The outcome of this *laissez-faire* theory has been fatal to the health, the mind, and morals of thousands of little children. An alarmingly large proportion of homes did not assume this responsibility for the simple reason that ignorance made it impossible. Why should we blame mothers for this ignorance? What have high schools and colleges done in the past to educate parents of the future in child care? The results have cost the state millions in hospitals, asylums, charity organizations, and institutions of correction. The whole situation may be summed up by saying that the home could not, and the school would not, assume the problem of intelligent, scientific care of the bodies and minds of preschool children.

The nursery school then arose and is actually taking over the duties which ill-trained mothers or baby nurses in the home attempted in the past, or that trained nurses and doctors are providing with such skill in hospitals and health centers where occasional rather than daily health supervision is the best they can do to stem the tide.

The first good results in the pioneer nursery schools brought us face to face with the next problem—where to secure teachers with the type of training necessary for success in this new field. Those who gradually developed a new kind of curriculum for the children out of the experience in the pioneer nursery schools, securing their new knowledge and skill in the hard school of experience, were overwhelmed with demands for help in securing teachers for more nursery schools. The demand was so great that immediate efforts had to be made to open training centers for nursery school teachers.

A normal school curriculum for nursery school teachers—Those who had built up their own knowledge and skill in experience were forced to analyze this experience in order to trace the sources of their knowledge in order to lend assistance to those who were endeavoring to build a normal school curriculum for prospective nursery school teachers.

In our own case this process has been greatly facilitated by "diary records" of individual children made by trained observers serving in relays in order to have an accurate, scientific record of all the activities of two or three year old children throughout a whole day. With large numbers of these records of individual children at our disposal we could list and classify pretty carefully the types of service needed by children of this age. When these were supplemented by "diary records" of skilful nursery school teachers throughout a whole day, we were well on the way to a job analysis of nursery education. We supplemented these records of nursery children and teachers by a listing of the different jobs of a nursery school teacher, again made by relays of trained observers so as to cover all the varied jobs of the teacher throughout the whole day. With these three types of records of activities of children with their typical needs, and the skilful responses to these needs by trained nursery school teachers we could begin to group her needs for instruction under such headings as psychology, psychiatry, hygiene, nursing and health, nutrition, etc., but the greatest need of all, no matter what type of knowledge was required, was found to be the art of teaching. First and foremost the nursery school director must be a good teacher—able to apply all her psychology, psychiatry, and pedagogy in every situation. It is one thing to know what diet children should have, another to teach them to eat it with physical and emotional satisfaction. It is necessary to know the amount of sleep a nursery child should have, but a still more difficult problem to teach twenty babies to go to sleep with as little waste of time and disturbance of others as possible.

While all the subjects of a curriculum for a nursery school teacher are not new or unknown in present day curricula for other teachers, the emphasis is quite different and the knowledge gained is immediately applied in the psychological and physical care given in the nursery school. In other words, the nursery school teacher has to know and be able to teach successfully all that skilful teachers in the kindergarten and elementary grades require, but in addition to this she must be prepared to carry through with scientific insight, intelligence, and skill the duties of the mother, the trained nurse, and the nutritionist. The faculty then not only includes the services of psychologists, as in all normal schools, but mental health workers, pediatricians, dentists, trained nurses, nutritionists, social case workers, speech corrective experts, parental guidance specialists. While all nursery schools cannot be research centers, the nursery school teacher must be thoroughly schooled in methods of research, so that good personality records and studies can be made of every child. The problem of records possible for all nursery school teachers to keep has not yet been solved, but

it goes without saying that such records must be kept and the treatment of the child guided in the light of these.

When nursery schools met with their first success in this country, specialists in all these different fields entered upon the work with enthusiasm, and each had to learn through hard experience, that her own specialty was just one angle on the nursery school program. Each had to come to realize that there was much additional knowledge she must acquire before she could put through with success a whole day's duties.

This partially explains the great differences in nursery schools all over this country. While sameness is to be deplored and avoided, variation should not be due to blind-spots in the teacher's mind caused by ignorance in putting through certain activities in the program where she should be well informed. One does not have to travel far to see these great variations. In one nursery school the diet may be excellent and the teaching execrable. In another the teaching excellent, but ignorance along the lines of nutrition inexcusable. Each of these different fields has contributed much to the nursery school program, but good teaching ability is absolutely essential. Nor can we calmly neglect the relation of the nursery school program to the curriculum of the kindergarten and primary grades which the children are to enter later on. One nursery school teacher was heard to say with an air of superiority and amusement, "my children give great trouble to the kindergarten and primary teachers when they leave us." This was considered a joke on the teachers to whom the children went, but she never questioned her own lack of responsibility to the curriculum and teachers in the later grades.

The personality of the nursery school teacher—In addition to the varied knowledge and technics required for success in the nursery school, we cannot overlook the problem of temperament, personality, disposition, and character.

Because of the young child's marvellous ability to absorb unconsciously much that has to be given through direct instruction in later years, the teacher should be sound in morals and character and lovable in disposition. She should be what we call, for the want of a better name—"a cultured personality," an embodiment of culture, in voice, speech, and in refinement of thought and feeling. While she cannot be expected to be an angel, those who have low ideals and poor habits of conduct can do more damage in these early years than can be estimated. In these early years virtue, honor, cleanliness of thought and feeling, courage, reverence, etc., are more contagious than measles and whooping cough. We should establish a more rigid quarantine against contacts with low ideals than in physical disease, for they are as deadly to the soul as disease is to the body.

We have been much interested in making a study of the temperaments of successful nursery school teachers to discover the elements of success. There must be an element of tranquility or serenity combined with an alertness which is not excitable, but quick to see and respond. There

must be enjoyment of the children in one's varied contacts with them, a sense of fun and humor to carry oneself and the children over rough places. Without this the care of such young children would degenerate into drudgery. The enlightenment of the knowledge involved in every response made to child need, plus a deep appreciation of the marvel of growth in baby conquests in small things is absolutely necessary. One must love development and growth as such, even though results are not what the world calls great. To feel oneself as a constant stimulus to growth and conquest in a baby world, where helplessness develops into efficiency, dependence into self-reliance, weakness into strength, gives deep satisfaction to the maternal soul in every good teacher. Froebel tried to voice this to mothers in his day in poor poetry, but with deep meaning, when he analyzed for a young mother her deep satisfaction in caring for her own baby thus:

I am sun from hour to hour
To a little human flower.

A STUDY OF EXCURSIONS IN THE KINDERGARTEN

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Walt Whitman told of a child who went forth every day

And the first object he look'd upon, that object he became;
And that object became part of him for the day or a certain part of the day, or
for many years, or stretching cycles of years,
The early lilacs became part of this child,
And grass, and white and red morning-glories, and white and red clover, and the
song of the phoebe-bird,

And all the changes of city and country, wherever he went.

What were the children in our kindergartens becoming? This was a question which challenged every teacher in our association. We made a survey of our children's environments in order to answer it. Through the survey we discovered the range of the children's experiences in the home and neighborhood. We found out the nationalities and occupations of the parents; the home conditions and standards, social activities, and neighborhood experiences of the families; and, finally, we surveyed our own kindergarten environments to see if they could supply what the home environments did not.

As we studied the children's home conditions and daily lives, we found that, in the language of the poet, many of them were becoming grassless yards, treeless streets, moving trucks, and smoking chimneys. Their environments lacked calm and peace, color and natural beauty. These children needed to see the well-ordered outside world with its obedience to laws; they needed to watch people and children working and playing harmoniously; they needed close companionship with a world of light and color peopled with children of their own age who felt the same desires that they did; and they needed opportunity for the quiet enjoyment of

nature through contact with "great open spaces," where they could see the sky overhead, feel the earth beneath their feet, breathe the fresh country air free of fog and city smoke, hear the birds and bees, and taste berries, fruits, and nuts. Also, they lacked knowledge of the social forces that influenced their lives, so that they needed contact with institutions that contributed something to their well-being. . . . contact with the farm and market house as sources of supplies; with the postoffice, police station, and fire department as institutions contributing service; with museums and the zoo as places for keeping objects of interest and beauty. Could not these children of ours go forth occasionally to experiences that would make them become for "a certain part of the day" or for "stretching cycles of years" something worthwhile; and, becoming something worthwhile, would they not express themselves in some way?

The four kindergarten teachers connected with our Training School and three connected with public and private school kindergartens instituted a series of excursions selected to supplement the children's experiences with those richer in enjoyment, content, and development. Among these were excursions to parks, postoffices, fire stations, flower stores, museums, and the zoo. We recorded the effects of these excursions on the activities of the children. We found that excursions carefully selected to meet the needs of the child bring him much happiness; they give him many impressions for which he seeks modes of expression; they stimulate dramatic activities in which he portrays the life he has seen and by so doing gains an understanding of it; they give him incentives and purposes for much work of educational value; and they enrich the content of his mind. But not only do the excursions give each child many worthwhile impressions; they also give the group a fund of common experiences that it can look forward to, plan for, enjoy together, and look back upon. Thus, by furnishing it with many common purposes in preparing for them and reliving them dramatically later on, they establish a nucleus for much activity in the self-directed and play periods and in the language arts.

The director of each kindergarten decided what excursions were to be taken (this decision was often influenced by the eager requests of the children), and she made the necessary plans for carrying them through. Some were planned as the first step in what was hoped would prove to be a unit of work undertaken by the whole or a part of the kindergarten group. Some came about as the culmination of work done by the group. Others were taken as a desirable step in work being carried on by the children. However, the children never were given the idea—nor did they have it—that an excursion was taken in order to learn this-and-that so that they could do thus-and-so when they returned.

The entire kindergarten group participated in most of the excursions. These groups included from fourteen to forty-one children two-and-a-half to seven years of age, and from four to thirteen adults; the usual number being about thirty children and six adults. In four of the kindergartens the cost was met by a budgeted amount sufficient to buy one car ticket per child per month. In the other two, the children were asked to bring

their own car fare or automobiles for conveying them were supplied by certain of the parents.

Before the excursions were begun "Safety First" was accepted as the motto for both children and adults, even though it may be, as Patty Hill suggests, a middle-age virtue. Because it was necessary to cross streets and take cars in traffic-congested areas, stringent rules were formulated and strict adherence to them demanded. In one kindergarten before long excursions were attempted, a few short neighborhood walks were taken to accustom the children to orderly behavior on the streets. These were followed by a group discussion of behavior problems that might arise on an excursion in which, with the teacher's help, the children formulated the following rules to be recorded and read before each excursion:

Take a partner.
Walk on the sidewalk.
Look both ways before crossing a street.
Stay in back of the leader.
Keep in your own place.
You mustn't touch things.
You must watch the policeman.
You must mind the teacher.

At the first of the year the children were "tagged" with the name and address of the kindergarten, so that, should any become lost, they could be brought back. Throughout the experiment it was found that much more reliance for proper conduct during excursions could be placed upon the five than upon the four year old child.

The tangible outcomes of this research are many and valuable. The pictures show and the descriptions written by the directors tell of many of these. But there are some outcomes—intangible as yet, for psychologists have not found ways of recording them—that are, perhaps, even of more value. Keats names these as yet not-to-be-tabulated outcomes—outcomes that make for emotional stability and a happy adjustment to life—in his description of beauty. He says:

A thing of beauty is a joy forever;
Its loveliness increases; it will never
Pass into nothingness; but still will keep
A bower quiet for us, and a sleep
Full of sweet dreams, and health, and quiet breathing.

Excursions may bring to the children things of beauty that "will keep a bower quiet for them and a sleep full of sweet dreams, and health, and quiet breathing." And what Keats adds to this description of beauty and what Walt Whitman has said in other words may be true of the experiences such as this gained through excursions—

Nor do we merely feel these essences
For one short hour; no . . . (they)
Haunt us till they become a cheering light
Unto our souls, and bound to us so fast,
That, whether there be shine, or gloom o'ercast,
They always must be with us, or we die.

A STATISTICAL TREATMENT OF RESULTS

HELEN COE CLOWES, CLEVELAND KINDERGARTEN-PRIMARY TRAINING
SCHOOL, CLEVELAND, OHIO

The six kindergartens that formed the working units for the experiment were very diverse in composition. Bingham Kindergarten neighborhood is one of great poverty and violence, where the making and selling of illegal liquor is the chief means of support of some of the families. There have been three murders in the immediate environment of the kindergarten this year. The gruesome details of raids, arrests, and fights with the police are a vivid part of the children's conversation. One child remarked on seeing a policeman, "There's the guy wot hits you over the head!" Italians predominate in this kindergarten with a sprinkling of twelve other nationalities. Day-laborer is the chief occupation.

Castle Kindergarten presents a more cheerful aspect. It is practically an all-Polish settlement, giving a unified racial and religious group. While there is some poverty there is considerable prosperity. Over half of the fathers work in steel mills.

Hanna Kindergarten is a group with no pure racial strains. The children nearly all speak English so they can be understood, and many fluently. More than half of the children come from broken homes caused by death, divorce, imprisonment, or illegitimacy. It is a dreary, colorless neighborhood where people settle who have seen better days, but either through financial misfortune or moral slackening have reached the dregs of existence. Laborer is the predominating occupation.

Wade Kindergarten is in a crowded downtown district of great poverty. Nunziato on his return to kindergarten after the Christmas vacation gives a vivid picture of this condition. "Santa Claus didn't brang me no electric train." There was evidently nothing else given by Santa to assuage his grief at this omission. There is a mixture of foreign races, chiefly Italian, Negro, and Slav. Principal occupations are day-laborer and shop-worker. The children speak very little English and appear as a group very lacking in initiative and hope and buoyancy which are the natural attributes of childhood.

One public school group is situated in a district where the homes have lawns and trees. There are forty American children out of a group of fifty-four. Occupations listed include presidents of banks, lawyers, real-estate dealers, and professors. Forty-nine of the mothers are home-makers. There are only two broken homes and these are due to death. The parents have leisure time for social activities.

The other public school group is situated in a district where there are fine apartments and two-family houses, but much of the district is given over to single houses occupied by their owners. This group has thirty American children out of a group of thirty-one. The fathers are principally occupied in business. There are no broken homes. These parents, also, have time for social and philanthropic activities.

The statistical study lacks the results of excursions taken in the country owing to the limited period allowed. From February first to the first part of May it was impossible to take such excursions on account of the stormy cold weather that Cleveland experienced. Although the children were taken out in the country later in May, those excursions were not recorded and tabulated as that was too late for this study.

The records of the children's various modes of expression for each excursion were kept in a very systematic manner. Each kindergartner had the assistance of practice students. The kindergartners and practice students were assigned a definite number of children and were expected to jot down every verbal expression heard on the excursion or later in the kindergarten, noting the child's name and date of expression. They also recorded all forms of manual expression, dramatic expression, reading expression, printing expression, and number expression when they occurred. These records were copied from the notebooks on to sheets of paper with the proper headings—name of kindergarten, name of excursion, type of expression, date, child's name, and what was said and done.

While tabulating verbal expression we discovered that it fell into these headings: information, desires, satisfactions, criticisms, leadership, and future plans. Therefore a second tabulation sheet was printed and the verbal expression retabulated under the headings indicated.

After the excursion took place and as soon as the bulk of the records was in, the tabulation was started on printed sheets prepared in advance for the purpose. Expressions were tabulated under the proper headings. For example, under conversation one mark was made for every different thought expressed. In order to designate how long after the excursion the recall was made, the mark 1 was used for each expression given in the first week, the mark 2 for expressions given in the second week, etc. In some kindergartens recalls were given as late as the thirteenth week. "T" was used to indicate any expression that was directly stimulated by the teacher in answer to her question or in response to any suggestion given by her. "B" was the mark used to indicate any expression relative to the excursion before the excursion took place.

In all kindergartens but one, every child was given the Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon intelligence test to enable us to discover the relation of ability to expression. For this one kindergarten the scores from the Detroit first grade intelligence test were the only records of ability that were available and the children's records were separated into superior, average, and inferior groups according to the norms for the test. The chronological ages of the children going on all excursions ranged from 3 years and 5 months to 6 years and 4 months. Their mental ages ranged from 3 years to 8 years and 2 months.

At the close of the time allowed for the recording of excursion recalls, the tabulation sheets were assembled and the total results for each child were tabulated. The first set of data derived from the tabulation sheets consisted of totals for every expression for each individual child for each

excursion. The records of the children were grouped according to ability. All children with I. Q.'s of 110 or above were classed as superior. Those children whose I. Q.'s ranged between 90 and 110 were classed as average. Children whose I. Q.'s ranged below 90 were classed as inferior. Of the children classed as inferior many were probably low because of English disability. In spite of this English handicap, some of them scored rather high in verbal expression because they had enough English to speak brokenly, but not enough to enable them to understand the English used in the test.

For each excursion a separate sheet was made showing the totals of every expression from each kindergarten that went on that excursion and the number of children that went. The results were separated into groups of superior, average, and inferior ability. This comprised the second set of data and brought out the following facts: The total number of children who were actually taken on the various excursions was 545. Many children went to five, some to four, some to only two or three, and a few were only there for the last excursion so that the combined number of children taken on excursions was 545 while the total number of different children who went on the excursions was 210. The total number of expressions tabulated was 15,643.

There were 195 children in the superior ability group and they gave 7767 expressions. That is to say 35 percent of all the children were in the superior ability group and they gave 50 percent of all the expressions, 15 percent above what would be expected from the number of children attending. The 227 children in the average group gave 5487 expressions; 42 percent of all children were in the average group and they gave 35 percent of the expressions, which is 7 percent below the expected percentage. The 123 children in the inferior group gave 2389 expressions; 23 percent of all children were in the inferior group and they gave 15 percent of all the expressions, which is 8 percent below the expected percentage.

The superior ability group kept above the relative 35 percent of children in every form of expression, giving 62 percent of all the desires which is 27 percent above the expectation, 58 percent of all criticism which is 23 percent above the expectation, 58 percent of all future plans which is 23 percent above the expectation, etc.

The reading expression in the kindergarten took more often the form of making signs and labels and therefore has a much more manual aspect than the heading presupposes. This explains probably the lower percentage of reading expression for this group and the higher percentage for the average ability group. The lower percentage for conversation is easily explained when we realize that much of the conversation among children, as well as adults, has little content, and therefore when comparing it with the headings that take into consideration content only, conversation naturally falls below.

The average ability group falls below the relative 42 percent of children in every expression except reading, number, manual, and musical expressions. The inferior ability group falls below the relative 23 percent

of children in every expression except dramatic and that is 1 percent above. The higher percentages in satisfactions, information, and desires point again to the fact that there was much material in this group that was not really of inferior ability.

The second set of data also gave the comparative returns from each excursion. This was expressed in numbers and in percentages for each excursion. For example, 130 children attended the zoo excursion, which is 24 percent of all the children (545) attending excursions. The zoo brought forth: 37 percent of all information given on all excursions which is 13 percent above the expectation, . . . 24 percent of all dramatic which is just the expectation, . . . 15 percent of all reading which is 9 percent below the expectation.

These data were collected in a table which gave the rank number for each excursion in every mode of expression. For example, art museum ranks first in amount of expression for conversation, questions, information, desires, and satisfactions; but drops to second rank under criticism and number; to third rank under musical expression; to fourth rank under future plans; to fifth rank under leadership, reading, and dramatic expression; to sixth rank under manual expression.

From these data a scheme of scoring the various excursions was evolved. The percentages above the expected percentage were added; percentages below the expected percentage were added; and the smaller percentage subtracted from the larger percentage which gave a score in final returns either above or below the expected.

The art museum receives a score of 90 above the expected percentage, the highest score of all excursions: the score for the post office is 37 above; the fire station 18 above: the zoo 8 above; the railroad station 1 above; the Rockefeller estate is even with the expected percentage; the natural history museum is 22 below; the training school exhibit 33 below; the florist shop 44 below; and the city hall and police station receive the lowest score of all, 65 below.

Certain variables in the situation may have influenced the returns unduly. Probably the most important variable is the type of ability that predominated in the children who went on the excursion. Ability groups were represented on each excursion as follows:

Art museum—Superior 43 percent, average 30 percent, inferior 27 percent.

Post office—Superior 42 percent, average 42 percent, inferior 16 percent.

Fire station—Superior 44 percent, average 35 percent, inferior 21 percent.

Zoo—Superior 30 percent, average 43 percent, inferior 27 percent

Railroad station—Superior 8 percent, average 50 percent, inferior 42 percent.

Rockefeller estate—Superior 66 percent, average 33 percent, inferior 0 percent.

Natural history museum—Superior 63 percent, average 32 percent, inferior 5 percent.

Training school exhibit—Superior 8 percent, average 46 percent, inferior 46 percent.

Florist shop—Superior 35 percent, average 40 percent, inferior 25 percent.

Police station and city hall—Superior 38 percent, average 54 percent, inferior 8 percent.

Another variable is the sequence number of the excursion. If the excursion was first in the sequence of four or five there would be a longer time for recalls to be made; if it were last there would be an extremely short time for the recall of experiences. However, there is one condition that makes the first position in the sequence undesirable and that is the student's ability to record. Learning plays an important rôle on the adult's ability to record, therefore the records may be more meagre for the first excursion in the sequence. The length of time for recalls may counter-balance this condition. Sequence numbers for various excursions follow:

Art museum—The art museum was the first excursion taken by one kindergarten and the third excursion taken by another, so its sequence number is one for one kindergarten and three for another.

Post office—One for three kindergartens, two for one kindergarten.

Fire station—Two for two kindergartens.

Zoo—Four for four kindergartens, five for one.

Railroad station—One for one kindergarten.

Rockefeller estate—Three for one kindergarten.

Natural history museum—Two for one kindergarten.

Training school exhibit—Three for one kindergarten.

Florest shop—Two for one kindergarten, three for three, and four for one.

Police station and city hall—One for two kindergartens.

Several other variables figured in the experiment. Some excursions gave experiences that enriched the children's daily experiences, such as the daily visit of the postman and the frequent passing of the fire department. Zoo experiences are prepared for in practically every home by animal picture books. The attitude built up in many homes of fear of the policeman influenced the excursion to the police station.

Owing to the variety of conditions that prevailed for the excursion it is imperative to interpret the excursion scores with these variables in mind. The city hall and police station results were combined because the jail was situated in the city hall. This excursion received the lowest score of all being 65 points below the expected percentage. Its sequence number was one in both instance giving ample time for recalls to be made which balances the inexperience of the recorders. From the quality of the ability of the children going on the excursion a much higher score would be expected, as there were 38 percent of superior ability, 54 percent of average, and only 8 percent, of inferior ability. This high ability puts this excursion in the class with the art museum, post office, and fire station. Why should there be a difference of 155, 112, and 83 points? The answer probably lies in the attitude of the children in Bingham Kindergarten toward the police, which has been described earlier, and the threatening use that is generally made of the policeman even in better communities. Although the description of the excursion shows that a much better attitude was built up, it will take more than a one-hour visit to counteract the daily contact with the adult attitude in this neighborhood of crime.

The railroad station received a score of one point above the expected percentage. This result is surprising, when compared with the four ex-

cursions receiving higher scores, because of the natural appeal of engines and trains to little children and the universality of the use of train toys as play materials. Its sequence number of one subjects it to the recording ability of untrained recorders, and a glance at the composition of the group gives full explanation. The superior group was only 8 percent the average 50 percent, and the inferior 42 percent, of the total number attending.

The zoo, an expected favorite, was fourth in the score list, receiving a score of eight points above the expected percentage. The sequence number was four for four kindergartens and five for one kindergarten. It was the last excursion taken by all groups. The ability of the group was 30 percent superior, 43 percent average, and 27 percent inferior, giving this excursion only a little lower rating in ability than the three excursions that head the list. This score is rather surprising because of the strong appeal of animals to little children but is explained by the shortness of time for recalls as it was the last excursion in every series.

The art museum with its score of 90 points above the expected percentage is overwhelming in its evidence of the children's preference. Its sequence number was two in one kindergarten and three in another, which gave it the advantage of adequate time for recalls of experiences but not of experienced recorders as it was the first excursion the Juniors had recorded in their practice teaching in both kindergartens. The ability of the children was as high or higher than all the other groups for other excursions with the exception of the Rockefeller estate and natural history museum, having 43 percent of superior, 30 percent of average, and 27 percent of inferior children. It was not an excursion that enriched the daily experiences of the children (as color and beauty are sadly lacking in the poorer environments from which these children came) except in two instances—the postcard preparation for the Cizek pictures and the subjects of the religious pictures which were familiar to the children. There was not much opportunity for dramatic expression as in the post office and several other excursions. The following are probably some reasons for the strong appeal. There was riot of color in the Cizek pictures; the pictures had been painted by children and therefore the subjects were more nearly related to the children's understanding; the children had seen postcard reproductions of many of the pictures and were delighted to recognize them. The religious pictures in the upper galleries were quickly recognized and appreciated. The life-size horses mounted with armored knights were strange to the children but piqued their curiosity evoking much questioning and challenging of statements. The beauty of form in sculpture and the embodying of moods that children understand appealed strongly making one child dramatize at once "The Turtle Baby." The beautiful marble of the floors did not escape their notice. All this appreciation of beauty seems to prove that beauty in any form is appreciated by children no matter what their environment has been. This fact alone points to our duty to bring more of it into the children's lives in our nursery schools, kindergartens, and early primary grades.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Monday, June 28, 1926

Meeting was called to order by the president, May Hill, director of the Cleveland Kindergarten-Primary Training School, Cleveland, Ohio.

Myrta Abigail Shannon, kindergarten-primary supervisor, West Orange, New Jersey, was appointed secretary pro tem in the absence of Ruth Patterson, supervisor of kindergartens, Indianapolis, Indiana.

Miss Hill reported that the Department of Kindergarten Education, with the support of Alice Temple, president of the International Kindergarten Union, and Lucy Gage, chairman of the National Council of Primary Education, had petitioned the National Education Association for permission to change the name of the department to "The Department of Kindergarten-Primary Education of the National Education Association." It was expected that a favorable action would be taken upon this at the Philadelphia meeting.

The nominating committee was appointed by the chair to nominate officers for the coming year. The committee consisted of: Ruth Streitz, Julia Wade Abbot, and Alda Adkins.

Harriet M. Johnson, director of nursery schools, bureau of education experiments, New York City, spoke on the subject, "Educating the Nursery School Child." Education provides for the preschool child: 1. Motor experiences; 2. Sensory experiences; 3. Social experiences. Emphasis is based upon experience rather than training.

Conceiving of growth as a dynamic process, education must be evaluated by opportunities it gives to children for increase in physical power and control in effective living, and for the exercise of the creative in dealing with the environment."

Abigail Eliot of Ruggles Street nursery school and training center, Boston, Massachusetts, presented the subject, "Educating the Parent Through the Nursery School." She said that since the home is a greater influence than the nursery school, the aims and methods must be the same in each, or what is learned in the school is soon unlearned in the home.

Patty Smith Hill, director, department of kindergarten—first grade education, Teachers College Columbia University, spoke on the subject, "Training the Teacher at Nursery Schools."

The nursery school teacher has to know and be able to teach successfully all that is required of skilful teachers in the kindergarten and elementary grades, and in addition, must carry through with scientific insights, trained nurse, and the nutritionist. In addition to this the teacher should be sound in morals and character and lovable in disposition. She should be, for want of a better name, "a cultivated personality."

Tuesday, June 29, 1926

Meeting was called to order by the president, May Hill.

Report of the nominating committee was as follows: *President*, Julia Hahn, Kindergarten-Primary Supervisor, San Francisco, California; *Vice-President*, Marie Fowler, Kindergarten-Primary Supervisor, Kalamazoo, Michigan; *Secretary*, Frances Berry, Kindergarten-Primary Supervisor, Baltimore, Maryland.

The report was accepted and officers unanimously elected.

John K. Norton, director of Division of Research, National Education Association, Washington, D. C., discussed the subject, "Relation of the Classroom Teacher to Research." He said growth in other professions than teaching is due largely to the intelligent use of research. Education must be treated as a science. Teachers must be trained in the use of research. There needs to be a close relation between research and practice.

Bess M. Gambrill, whose name appeared on the program, was, because of illness, unable to be present.

Helen Coe Clowes, critic and training teacher, Cleveland kindergarten-primary training school, Cleveland, Ohio, gave a statistical report of the study of excursions, giving definite results of this type of learning.

Florence Edwards of the same school showed pictures at these excursions.

On June 30 at the Pennsylvania Hotel a joint luncheon of the Kindergarten Union and the National Council of Primary Education was given.

In the absence of Lucy Gage, the chairman of the National Council of Primary Education, Bertha Barwis, vice-chairman, presided, in a very gracious manner.

Julia Wade Abbot expressed her welcome and that of the teachers and children of Philadelphia, as did also the original place cards made by the children, and the very evident atmosphere of hospitality and good comradeship, made possible by the hostesses' spirit of "Brotherly Love."

Appreciation is also expressed to Miss Gage in providing a very inspirational program.

Minnie Lee, of Tower Hill school, presented in a most clear and forceful manner the subject, "Conditions Favorable to Creative Work."

The following are quotations from her stimulating paper:

"The most essential conditioning factor in blazing the trail in this new education is that all teachers, grade teachers, special teachers, supervisors, principals, shall hold in common the philosophy of life and education that is implied in these three tenets of faith. They must believe: first, that every normal individual possesses to a greater or less degree the impulse to create; second, that one of the characteristics of the creative mind is the questioning attitude; and third, that he should be given a chance to use his natural, creative impulses. Another equally important factor is that those holding this common philosophy should be able to work together harmoniously.

A third condition for the fostering of creative work in schools is that parents should have the same philosophy of education as that held by teachers and educators.

A fourth condition relates to that of the atmosphere of the classroom. Creative powers can be exercised only in an atmosphere free from arrogant authorities.

Certain physical conditions are essential to creative work. Materials and tools must be available. Storage space for children's work must be provided.

Another condition, the sixth one, lies in the role played by the teacher, one demanding the highest professional skill. He must be a source book, the Jack-of-all trades, versatile, capable, patient, friendly, serene.

Another condition necessary to promote growth through the use of creative impulses is the provision of a flexible program and an intelligent use of the course of study.

From the child's whole-hearted endeavors come many values that he himself realizes, knowledge that is usable, skills that are his own; confidence in his ability to do and increasing appreciation of the work of others. New hungers arise, new desires, new satisfactions, the very essentials of growth and education. Personality develops, character emerges.

Ruth Bristol, of Ann Arbor, was the leader of the discussion which followed. Some of the creative work done in the Ann Arbor schools was shown.

The discussion led to the conclusion that definite proofs of values of creative work should be accumulated and published.

Suggestion was made by Alda Adkins, secretary of the National Council of Primary Education, that such contributions be sent the publication office of the National Council of Primary Education, and the *Childhood Education Magazine*.

She reported California as having more primary councils organized than any other state.

Department of Music Education

THE DEPARTMENT OF MUSIC EDUCATION was created by the Board of Directors at the Madison, Wis., meeting in 1884. See *Proceedings* 1884: 23. This department cooperates with the Music Supervisors' National Conference.

The officers of the Department for the year 1926-27 are: *President*, George L. Lindsay, Director of Music, Philadelphia Public Schools, Grant Building, 17th and Pine Streets, Philadelphia, Pa.; *Vice-President*, C. A. Fullerton, Head of Department of Music, Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa; *Secretary*, Agnes Benson, Supervisor of Music, Public Schools, 3819 Pine Grove Ave., Chicago, Ill. This Department meets once each year, in June. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier *Proceedings* as follows:

1885: 369-405	1894: 925-957	1902: 614-644	1910: 789-833	1918: 315-323
1886: 563-599	1895: 765-807	1903: 683-719	1911: 787-827	1919: 291-303
1887: 607-653	1896: 718-754	1904: 675-709	1912: 1001-1031	1920: 309-311
1888: 625-665	1897: 772-792	1905: 627-706	1913: 601-619	1921: 507-515
1889: 665-703	1898: 832-856	1906: 703-706	1914: 625-649	1922: 1047-1063
1890: 811-827	1899: 970-998	1907: 849-877	1915: 847-883	1923: 733-737
1891: 807-827	1900: 531-542	1908: 835-862	1916: 575-613	1924: 597-613
1892: 507-533	1901: 704-721	1909: 673-701	1917: 473-491	1925: 504-522
1893: 507-543				

WHAT SCHOOL MUSIC MEANS TO AMERICA

JAMES FRANCIS COOKE, EDITOR OF THE ETUDE, AND PRESIDENT OF THE PRESSER FOUNDATION, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

IS AMERICA *really at war without realizing it?*—Thought energy is the dynamic force of civilization. Because the teachers of America are the construction engineers of this great force, their work takes preeminence over all other forms of human endeavor. It makes little difference whether this is recognized by the public of the moment or not. The fact remains, and the public is being compelled to recognize it for the protection of civilization.

The vast interest taken in music and musical education is one of the significant signs of the increase in general education. It has been estimated that from two to three million dollars a day are being spent by the American people upon music. A very large portion of this is being devoted to musical education. More and more, music is becoming a part of public school work.

When Charles W. Eliot, President Emeritus of Harvard University, proclaimed some fifteen years ago that "Music is second to no other study in its educational value," he was merely emphasizing what laboratory psychologists and educational clinics have scientifically ascertained, and what the great educators, from Plato to the present, know full well.

America's huge expenditure for music is, in the eyes of the experienced educator and the psychological experts, an investment which must bring rich dividends.

Apart from the public, which looks upon music purely as an entertainment, those who know, realize that music has an immense value in industry, therapeutics, religion, ethics.

It would be possible to spend hours in giving evidences of the marvelous possibilities of music in each field of activity. As the editor of a musical magazine of international scope, it has been my good fortune during the last eighteen years to meet not only practically all of the great musicians of our time, but also the outstanding men and women in the phases of human activity where music is of the greatest service. My position has been that of the man in the conning tower overlooking the great seas of human endeavor in relation to music.

In the field of industry, many of the foremost industrial leaders of the world have given me their personal assurances of their enormous valuation of the importance of music as a stimulant, an inspiration, and a refreshment from the terrific demands of daily life for the workers in the depths of the mines, in the puddling rooms, on the topmost girders of the steel skeleton, from the humblest worker to the highest executive.

Charles M. Schwab, America's great steel king, has long made music study a part of his daily program. In a conference with him, he said that he knew nothing in life to excel it for the great purposes of relieving the

strain of modern business. At least twenty other men of the front rank in business and in industry have told me the same thing in the most chauvenistic terms.

In musical therapeutics, every month brings reports of the almost miraculous value of music in treating mental and nervous trouble. I doubted these reports, but I went personally to three of the most prominent psychiatrists in the state of Pennsylvania and found them thoroughly convinced of the practical value of musical therapeutics when applied by experts in cooperation with the brain doctors.

It is unnecessary to comment upon the importance of music in religion.

In education, it would require several volumes for me to recount the results of a vast number of conferences upon the value of music in education. From the first steps in music study, rote singing, dancing in rhythm, musical appreciation through the talking machines and the player piano, through the practical study of music, by means of musical instruments, there is nothing in the whole pedagogical field which leads to develop a higher degree of coordination between the mind and the body, nothing that demands more accurate thinking, nothing that promotes the musical memory to a larger capacity and a higher degree of responsiveness, nothing that accelerates the mental processes to as great a speed, nothing that develops a finer sense of form and balance as does music. The pity is that my time is so limited that I cannot give you scores and scores of illustrations of the vast significance of music in this connection. Take music from our schools and we would rob them of one of the most powerful and illuminating dynamos in the whole scheme of mind development. If you look into the history of education, you will discover a whole chorus of the greatest pedagogs of the ages emphasizing this opinion.

The value of music in connection with character building is largely that of putting the mind in tune, in proper mental condition, for the reception of great ethical principles. Music in itself is something quite apart from ethics, but when combined, the effect is like that of turning on a mighty electric current to a piece of idle machinery.

Nothing has given me a greater inspiration than the widespread interest in public schools in what is known as the "Golden Hour Ideal," which was first announced through my editorials many years ago. Under various names, the Golden Hour Ideal, which is merely the title for an entirely non-promotive plan or program to teach ethics (character building) in the public schools, together with the inspiration of music, has been employed as a means to combat the total absence of any worthwhile ethical training in the cases of hundreds of thousands of children. By means of some such plan, the teachers of America have a work of the highest importance in fighting the most dangerous forces of distinction that face our beloved nation at this moment.

In a period of unheard of crime of every imaginable description, our own police and courts have shown their impotence by the fleets of armored

motor cars in the street. We are really at war with an enemy and nobody seems to realize it. On one side are the most desperate crooks and drug fiends the world has ever known,—on the other side is the clergy, the home, and the school. The child in the school must have what ethical training he does not get from the church or his parents. Through regular study of character training and through the powerful inspiration of music at the same time, we can grow and train a new generation of young people whose stamina and character will not be questioned in excelling the forces that would destroy the highest standards of modern civilization.

MUSIC IN RURAL SCHOOLS

C. A. FULLERTON, HEAD OF THE DEPARTMENT OF MUSIC, IOWA STATE
TEACHERS COLLEGE, CEDAR FALLS, IOWA

Probably one fourth of the school children in our country attend one-room rural schools, and in the main the musical training that they receive in these schools is extremely unsatisfactory.

There are two outstanding needs in regard to music in the one-room rural schools. One is that the pupils and teachers have good ideals as to what music is; and the second is that they have adequate training in the re-creating of music. People who have technical skill but lack in worthy ideals in music are often a greater liability from a musical standpoint than those who have good ideals but are lacking in skill. My twenty-nine years in the music department of a teachers college have convinced me that the most effective way to develop satisfactory musical ideals in a one-room rural school and also develop technical skill, is to bring the music itself into contact with the children by means of a phonograph. The minutes available for teaching music in a one-room rural school are few and precious. It is highly important that false motions be eliminated and that only songs of the best quality be used, and so far as method is concerned a one-room rural school is certainly no place for bungling and ineffective methods of procedure. It took the world a long while to learn enough about children to be able to use efficient methods in teaching them, and music was one of the latest phases of education to get the benefit of the best educational ideals.

I have spent some years in attempting to use in the musical education of children the same processes by which children educate themselves in language before they get into school. I realize that it is an ambitious attempt, for it is generally conceded that children make a better record in educating themselves up to the age of five than they ever make later with the aid of the teacher.

The first need in the musical training of children is to develop an experience in music—both melody and rhythm that corresponds to the

speaking vocabulary that the child brought to school with him at the age of five, and music obviously has one advantage over language in that children usually bring some bad habits in speech to school with them the first day, while most of them bring no habits in music the first day. Here is presented a wonderful opportunity for the schools to "get there first" with good habits and see that none but good habits are developed. If every one-room rural school in the country would supply itself with a phonograph and some records and proceed systematically to develop musical power in the children, both in rhythm and melody, it would be but a few years till coarse strident tones and drawling rhythm would be supplanted by musical tones and light, buoyant rhythm.

It is easy to write about rural school music. There is something in it that appeals to the imagination. From the standpoint of the rural children, however, the first step for those who are training rural teachers is to get acquainted with the rural schools; the second is to work out a successful method for teaching music in the rural schools, and the third is to incorporate that method into the course of study for rural teachers in the teachers college, the normal training high school, the extension study centers, county institute, etc. The rural school music problem is clearly the rural teacher problem, and it will take some time to get them all well prepared to do the music work successfully, but "Here a little, and there a little" will work wonders if persisted in. If in every county institute even one hour of effective work could be devoted to music in the rural section, a gradual transformation in rural school music would take place.

During the remainder of my thirty minutes, with the assistance of Sims Song Slides and the Victor Talking Machine, I shall illustrate how I would use the time in the rural section of a county institute in preparing the teachers to get the beauty of music into the lives of the rural children and give them good musical training.

Outline for Two Hours of Work with the Rural Teachers in a County Institute

Material and Methods taken from "*The One Book Course in Elementary Music and Selected Songs for Schools*," supplemented by Sims Song Slides and Victor Records.

First Hour

Singing: Song on screen.

1. "My Old Dan," page 7, V. R. 19831.
 - a. Listen while phonograph plays first stanza.
 - b. Sing as indicated, page 7, and screen.Song on screen.
2. "The Fiddle," page 16, V. R. 19831.
 - a. Listen while phonograph plays first stanza.
 - b. Sing as indicated.
 - c. Class exchange parts with instrument.
 - d. Class sing entire song with instrument.

Rhythm: (with V. R. 18017.) "Tenth Regiment." (Also without phonograph.)

1. Slide hands upward alternately, palms touching.
2. Clap hands, touch shoulders.
3. Clap rhythm (loud, soft).
4. Imitate marching, with hands moving downward and upward alternately, palms open and turned inward. (Like wooden soldiers.)
5. Imitate marching with hands, mark time in place with feet at the same time.
6. Mark time in place, beginning on accented beat with left foot. Say, "Left, right, left, right, class halt, one, two." After the word "halt," take one step forward (one) and bring the other foot forward to a parallel position (two).
7. Step (marking time in place) quarter and eight notes in alternate measures: 1, 2, 3, 4; 1-and, 2-and, 3-and, 4-and.

Singing: Song on screen.

1. "A Frog He would A-Wooing Go," page 13, V. R. 19830, 3 stanzas.
 - a. Listen to first stanza as instrument plays.
 - b. Then class join with instrument on "Mm-mm."
 Song on screen.

2. "Stars of the Summer Night," page 66, V. R. 18627.
 - a. First listen to entire stanza.
 - b. Then sing as follows:

Instrument alone:

Stars of the summer night,
Hide, hide your golden light
She sleeps,

Class with instrument:

Far in yon azure deeps,
She sleeps, my lady sleeps;
She sleeps, my lady sleeps.

- c. Later, class sing entire song with piano accompaniment.

3. "Good Morning," page 44, V. R. 19830.

- a. Instrument play entire stanza.
- b. Class sing as indicated.

4. "Soldier Boys," page 11, V. R. 19831.

- a. Class listen while instrument plays first stanza.
- b. Class listen to entire song. Class join in "Tr-r-r-um," etc.

Class with instrument:

Forward, march, boys, brave and true,
and strong;
Tr-r-r-um, Tr-r-r-um, Tr-um, Tr-um,
Tr-um.

Instrument alone:

Ready, steady, bearing the flag along.
Soldier boys, Soldier boys, singing a
soldier song.

- c. Later, sing entire song with phonograph.
- d. Then sing entire song with piano.

Second Hour

Singing:

1. "My Old Dan." Song on screen.
 - a. Review as in previous hour.
 - b. Then class exchange parts with instrument.
 - c. Later class try to sing entire song with instrument; then with piano accompaniment.
2. "The Fiddle." Song on screen.
 - a. Review as in previous hour.
 - b. Clap rhythm while violin plays melody.
 - c. Sing syllables with instrument; commit.

Rhythm:

1. Review first hour.
2. "Dancing Song," page 35, V. R. 19891. Song on screen.

- a. Listen while instrument plays first stanza.
- b. Clap rhythm (loud-soft-soft) to entire stanza.
- c. Clap rhythm as indicated on page 35.

Singing:

1. "Bow-Wow," page 16, V. R. 19830. Song on screen for all songs.
 - a. Listen to first stanza.
 - b. Sing as indicated on page 16.
 - c. Class exchange parts with instrument.
 - d. Later class sing entire song.
 - e. Clap rhythm (loud-soft-soft-soft) as violin plays melody.

ART OF ACCOMPANYING AS APPLIED TO SCHOOL MUSIC—ABSTRACT

GEORGE H. GARTLAN, DIRECTOR OF MUSIC, PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF GREATER
NEW YORK, N. Y.

It is generally understood that perhaps the most important element in school music today is the development of artistic songs of a high order of merit. To accomplish this, music material must be presented in a manner which is sufficiently artistic and cultured to make the necessary impression upon children in order that it might arouse in them a desire to learn more about music and to understand its true message. The average assembly in the public school is after all a poor affair. Songs of patriotism and devotion are, or should be, a part of every assembly exercise. From this should be developed a degree of music appreciation which is not necessarily arrived at through listening lessons, but which grows out of the actual doing of music by the pupils themselves. The assembly exercises should be the result of the music work which has been done in the grades, and not merely an added part of school activity which has no direct bearing upon the business of music teaching.

There are two distinct elements in the conduct of assembly singing: First, the leader; second, the pianist. There must be a thorough understanding between the two in order that the accompaniment shall not only be in strict accord with the interpretation as given by the leader, but shall be an integral part of the singing, and not something which is merely added because it is a necessary requirement. An unsympathetic accompanist can destroy the work of the leader and practically nullify an artistic result.

It is not the purpose of this article to go into any lengthy discussion on the technical requirements of a pianist, but it is important to note that no one should attempt this work unless there is a certain degree of digital skill combined with an artistic sense of interpretation which would ordinarily fit such a person for public appearance and performance as a pianist. It is not necessary to reach into the field of piano virtuosity as we understand it to develop a successful accompanist, but it is necessary that this particular pianist be at least able to play the prescribed scales, octaves, and interval progressions, together with certain standard rhythmic combinations which are a part of every good accompaniment.

Department of Rural Education

THE DEPARTMENT OF RURAL EDUCATION grew out of the Department of Rural and Agricultural Education which was authorized by the Board of Directors in 1907. See *Proceedings* 1907: 44-45. At the Chicago meeting in 1919, the Department was reorganized with the three organized rural groups then existing—The National Association of State Supervisors and Inspectors of Rural Schools, the County Superintendent's section of the National Education Association, and the National Association of Persons Engaged in the Preparation of Rural Teachers—under the name of the Department of Rural Education. See *Proceedings* 1920: 279.

The Department meets twice each year, in February and in June.

The officers of the Department of Rural Education for the year 1926-27 are: *President*, Julian E. Butterworth, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.; *Vice-president*, May Trumper, State Department of Education, Helena, Mont.; *Secretary*, Katherine M. Cook, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.; *Treasurer*, C. G. Cooper, County Superintendent, Towson, Md.

This Department sponsors the publication of a journal or bulletin, which is sent regularly to members thereof. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier *Proceedings* as follows:

1906: 716	1911:1365-1391	1915:1131-1161	1919: 281-289	1923:745
1908:1187-1217	1912:1365-1391	1916: 613-637	1920: 271-278	1924:651-715
1909: 953-993	1913: 801-812	1917: 599-615	1921: 523-617	1925:522-563
1910:1081-1108	1914: 877-909	1918: 271-295	1922:1099-1197	

ESTABLISHING AND MAINTAINING STANDARDS OF SUPERVISION—ABSTRACT

I. JEWELL SIMPSON, ASSISTANT STATE SUPERINTENDENT IN MARYLAND

IF WE ACCEPT the definition of a supervisor as "a leader charged with the responsibility of organizing a teaching force for the study of its professional problems," we must recognize the fact that such leadership calls for certain standards of preparation and of accomplishment.

In addition to high certification qualifications, successful supervision requires:

That the supervisor know good teaching and that he be a good teacher
That he be able to secure the right attitude on the part of the teachers
That he know how to measure, check, and test the results of teaching
That he have tact, personality, and the ability to get on with people
That he shall not spread himself out too thin.

Experience has demonstrated that it is a valuable asset to a supervisor if he himself has had the opportunity of teaching and of developing in a good supervisory system—in other words, if he has had experience in receiving supervision.

After securing supervising teachers the school system has the responsibility of promoting their growth and of maintaining high standards of supervision. A state department of education may do this through four major activities:

1. By means of a summer-school course in the theory and practice of supervision, conducted in accordance with the ideals of the school system in which the supervisors are working.

2. By means of visits of the state supervisors to the local supervisors.

3. By means of state-wide conferences and regional conferences of supervisors and superintendents.

4. By publishing and distributing professional bulletins designed to give practical aid for the day's work.

Keeping its teachers and supervisors growing professionally is the acid test of a good school system.

THE ADVANCEMENT OF RURAL EDUCATION WAITS ON TRAINED TEACHERS—ABSTRACT

J. R. GRANT, STATE SUPERVISOR RURAL SCHOOLS, LITTLE ROCK, ARK.

Rural education is a broad term. In maintaining that rural education waits on trained teachers, one is covering a great deal of territory. It is putting a great responsibility on the rural teacher; it is saying that the advancement of rural people, intellectually, morally, socially, and economically, depends to a great extent on the work of the rural teacher. It is saying more than that: the advancement of a nation largely depends upon the advancement of its rural people. As a rule, the rural teacher

is not conscious of his far-reaching responsibility. In general, the people do not realize the big task that has been assigned to the rural teacher. Because teachers and patrons have failed to see the real importance and bigness of rural education, the rural teacher, as a rule, is too young, too inexperienced, and too poorly trained to shoulder this great responsibility. Because more teachers and patrons still believe that the importance of the teacher's position depends on the age and grade of the pupils taught, we still find teachers seeking "higher up" positions. Because most teachers and patrons still believe that when a teacher goes from the rural school to the urban school he has been promoted, we still find teachers seeking the urban positions. Most of us admit, regardless of where we live, that in rural communities where the one-room teacher is the superintendent, office help, principal, supervisor, specialist, nurse, truant officer, janitor, and so forth, we should have our very best teachers. We admit that the rural teacher who teaches all the grades should have a broader training.

As we go abroad, even in our imagination, and study the educational systems of other nations and see that all the leading governments of the world pay their teachers for what they do regardless of where they do it, we return home with a little less enthusiasm for our forty-eight systems of education and especially for the many smaller unit systems within these forty-eight systems. We return home more convinced that a nation has no way to perpetuate itself except through the education of all its people.

In order to get a national view of the teacher-training problem, information has been obtained from the forty-eight state departments of education. These departments answered the following five questions:

1. What education standard do you require of all teachers?
2. How are your teachers certificated?
3. When your teachers go from the rural school to town or city schools, do they think of it as a promotion?
4. Has your state special "Rural Teacher-training Departments?"
5. In some states, most trained teachers go to towns and cities. How are you solving this problem?

The replies to question one show that the tendency is toward a two-year college standard for all elementary teachers and a four-year college standard for all secondary teachers. Replies to question two show that the examination system is being replaced by certification on credentials, also that the states rather than the local authorities are issuing certificates. Replies to question three show that people in general consider it a promotion when teachers go from the rural school to the urban school. Replies to question four show that a majority of states have rural teacher training departments. The answers to question five show that the problem of keeping trained teachers in rural schools is not being solved. A few states, however, are doing a great deal toward solving it.

CAN RURAL SCHOOL FORCES AID IN SOLVING AGRICULTURAL PROBLEMS—ABSTRACT

KARY C. DAVIS, PROFESSOR OF AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION, PEABODY COLLEGE, NASHVILLE, TENN.

Our national progress depends upon agricultural prosperity. Rural education should be for life, not life for education. The struggle in our schools between culture and utility should be ended by a close coalition of the two. The rural people are paying more for education, and receiving less, than any other class. E. E. Windes, rural education specialist in the Federal Bureau, says:

In no other field of educational endeavor are conditions so chaotic as in elementary school agriculture.

This Department of Rural Education at its Indianapolis meeting last July resolved to attack some of the agricultural problems. In 1922 this Department resolved that, "The safety of society demands a new kind of rural school suited to the preparation of rural people for the new world situation."

The conditions found among farmers at present may be briefly pictured as follows:

1. People are too often dissatisfied with the work of the rural schools.
2. Pupils are allowed to drop out at 10 or 12 years of age.
3. Truancy laws too often fail to remedy this.
4. Illiteracy of all those over 10 years of age is 8 to 12 percent of the rural population.
5. The average education is below fifth grade.
6. Schools give little time to living subjects and environments of rural people.
7. Teachers are not in sympathy with rural life.
8. Teachers are not trained for rural life.
9. There are too many "suitcase" teachers—not living in the communities where they "keep school."
10. Schools are, too often, not social, literary, and recreational centers—no leaders, no organizations.
11. Taxes for schools are voted down or paid grudgingly.
12. Taxes in many regions equal or closely approach the annual rental value of land.
13. The average farm income, including food, fuel, and shelter, was \$17 per month for the great south central states during the years 1922 and 1923.
14. Farms are steadily passing into the hands of the landlord class—the percent of farm tenantry having greatly increased in the last census period.
15. A large proportion of supervisors of rural schools, superintendents and rural teachers, consider these matters as none of the business of the educational forces.

The present problems are largely suggested by these fifteen statements of conditions.

The aims of this Department should be and are to try to remedy many of these conditions; to try to save our rural people from becoming a peasant class; to unite in well directed efforts to allow the farmer to receive his just dues and be so trained as to be successful in his business and also enjoy

a genuine rural culture with eyes open to the beauty and glory that surround him.

It seems an almost inexcusable condition of affairs, that the great mass of rural school forces, with funds reaching almost a billion dollars annually, should so greatly miss the true purpose and aim in rural education.

Devices and methods—America has, through experimentation of nearly 39 years, evolved a truly wonderful science of agriculture which is, even now, largely unavailable for farmers. Such an educational resource should be put into operation where it will do the farmers the most good.

The recent experience of Denmark in training the rural classes through the teaching of agriculture in the schools, has shown that farmers can be lifted from among the poorest to the richest in the world; this in spite of natural adverse environment.

The agricultural extension forces should be used by the rural schools. Men and women agents, cooperating with the schools in a few states, enlist vast numbers of boys and girls in club work. In many states little or no cooperation exists. Teachers, supervisors, and county superintendents may assist county agents in formulating and pursuing annual programs of work for boys' and girls' clubs, schools, farm bureaus, and community organizations. The activities of all these movements should center at the schools and much of the school work and discussion should revolve about these activities.

The Smith-Hughes forces should also be used by the rural schools. In one state at least, this is successfully done. Each teacher of vocational agriculture coaches the agricultural teaching in several surrounding districts—through teacher-supervisor conferences, visitations, printed outlines, and mimeographed teaching plans. He also supervises the home projects of the rural school pupils. The whole plan greatly improves rural teachers in service and makes the school work function at home.

How rural supervisors and superintendents can help—At a regional rural supervisors' conference held in December, 1925, the thought of having the schools suit their communities was not discussed. Home economics, agriculture, and rural health were not mentioned except by one speaker, and then parenthetically and apologetically. Too many of these supervisors and superintendents are showing decided indifference to rural conditions—or they seem to want to throw their burdens onto the "other fellow." They are sorry that farming people show such indifference to the schools—taking children out with trivial or no real excuses; but why try to solve it? Why try to suit the schools to rural conditions? Is it not easier and better to transplant city methods, city subjects, city-minded teachers and city courses to the new consolidated rural districts? Perhaps all this happens because supervisors and superintendents are themselves city-minded or have been blinded by the glare of city ideals.

Why not reorganize the courses around the home and farm? Why not attack the problems of the poor, under-educated farmer struggling with too heavy a load? Why not make much of the school work center in the

farm life—offer farm shop work, improved agriculture, and home economics, including health and rural sanitation.

Should not rural supervisors be expected to know the rudiments of these things themselves? Should not the composition, history, arithmetic, geography, spelling and drawing be founded upon agriculture—the home and farm life of the children? Herbert Quick has portrayed this plan vividly.

The type of agriculture—The resolutions at the Indianapolis meeting last July very wisely stressed the importance of teaching the principles and methods of cooperative marketing. If the rural schools of America will earnestly attack this vital matter they can, in time, solve one of the greatest farm problems. The benefits of standardization, grading, packing, storing, holding, pooling, releasing, locating demands, and other features of good commodity marketing must become household terms in America as they are in Denmark.

Farm management must be considered in connection with each farm project instead of abstractly. Managerial jobs are more easily solved when attention is focussed upon them, than are many of the operative jobs. Such matters can readily be handled by bright teachers without danger of big-boy criticisms.

The modern investigations, scientific principles, soil, plant, and animal natures, economic phases, use of laboratory exercises, readings from texts and bulletins, problems and computations of rations, costs of equipment and cost of production, compositions on operations, records of production and sales, planning of fields, projects, buildings, rotations, etc.—these are leading the pupil beyond the ordinary daily humdrum, and cause his mind to delve deeper into the problems of life.

The 57 varieties of losses on farms should be studied with remedies for each.

Community competitions and contests are used very effectively in many places. The states of West Virginia and Oklahoma, and a few counties in some other states, as Kentucky, have some valuable community contests including agricultural features. Illinois has a good plan for stimulating rivalry among students in agricultural endeavors.

Purposeful surveys have been and are being made in a number of places with the hope that the special problems of localities may be considered by the rural school forces, and by local drives and campaigns.

Publicity—The agriculture, home economics, health, and allied subjects of the schools, should be given their due share of publicity. The public can be kept in sympathy with school work when proper attention is given to letting people know that really rural life work is being done at the school. This also has its own reflex action. School forces should give far more attention to this. Far too many absolutely ignore it. Many forms of publicity are suited to different places.

Home studies and investigations—Pupils should be given problems for investigation by observation and inquiry of successful neighbors and parents,

regarding the regular lessons in home economics, agriculture, marketing, and health conditions. Data brought from home should form the basis for compositions and arithmetic problems. Such daily exchange of information will greatly help both the home and the school. Patrons will cease to criticise and begin to praise.

The rotation plan—Agriculture is such a live subject that in schools having all the grammar grades together, pupils listen to the work in agriculture in spite of all efforts to the contrary. This naturally suggests the method of allowing all of the upper grades to take this work together. The work is divided into a series of years (2, 3, or 4) to be taken by the upper grades, 2, 3, or 4. Thus a rotation of subject-matter is established for that school, or for the whole county or whole state. This plan reduces the number of classes to be taught. It answers the objection of overcrowded daily programs. It saves time of pupils. It avoids undue duplication of subject-matter. It opens wider opportunity for correlation with other school subjects.

State systems—It remains for the first state to thoroughly work out a system of instruction—a rural school curriculum—in which the common branches are thoroughly correlated with the farm and home life of the community. This paper cannot go into the details of that. The state which first does this will set forth an example which all others will, in time, follow.

This will mean real live schools. Children will strive to attend them. Parents will praise and support them. Agriculture problems will be solved by them. Farmers' burdens will be lightened by them.

Let us hasten the day when rural schools will be suited to rural conditions; when subjects will be taught less abstractly and will be linked with vital rural problems.

Let the slogan be: "A well prepared rural teacher in every room correlating the school work with the lives of the people."

STANDARDIZATION OF RURAL HIGH SCHOOLS AWAITS DEFINITELY ACCEPTED OBJECTIVES OF RURAL EDUCATION

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OF EDUCATION, MONTGOMERY, ALA.

All over the United States we hope the day is soon to come when it will be possible for practically all boys and girls of high school age to attend standard high schools without living away from home in dormitories or boarding-houses. We hope the number of high schools will be increased where necessary, and that roads and transportation will be developed until practically every child can reach a high school of recognized standing each morning from his home and can return in the afternoon without serious hardship or undue loss of time. Not many serious persons

will refuse to join us in this wish for universal high school advantages for all our population, but not all of us have realized the enormity of the undertaking. The task is still far from complete, but already the number of small high schools is so great that a recent report from the Bureau of Education states that about three fourths of all the high schools in America enrol less than 100 pupils, while a majority of our high schools enrol less than 51 pupils. It seems that the average boy or girl is now entering high school, whereas, according to Inglis' estimate, only one boy or girl in ten entered high school in 1890. We should remember, however, that while this growth has been extremely rapid in rural communities, city children still attend high school in larger proportions than do those from country homes.

Parallel with this great growth in secondary education a change in emphasis in college entrance requirements has been developing in various parts of the country. Instead of definite quantitative requirements in various subjects for college entrance, the quality of work is now beginning to receive the greater attention. Gradually we seem to be approaching the time when college authorities will ask candidates for admission not "What subjects have you studied?" but "What is the quality of the high school from which you come, and how well did you do your work there?" This has thrown a heavy burden upon the state authorities and university officers who are responsible for standardization. Fifteen years ago the movement for the accrediting of high schools was well established, but the value and importance of standardization has been increasing enormously since that time.

Some of the most insistent questions which arise are as follows: Is it right to accredit rural high schools by the same standards as city high schools? Most of us seem convinced that considerable differences in standards of accreditation must be made between the high schools for country children and those for our city boys and girls. Shall the rural high school try to induce all its pupils to spend their lives in the country? It would be undemocratic and unjust if we tried to keep all these pupils in the country. On the other hand, some of us feel that many rural high schools are sending a majority of their pupils into the city, thus robbing the country of its finest and costliest resources and taking a large proportion of the children away from their best chance for a successful career and a satisfactory life. Should standardization attempt to correct these rural high schools which are in this way undermining and impoverishing country life? Shall the differences be only in interpretation of our standards? In this case the task is thrown upon the discretion of the accrediting officers. Discretion may often be the greater part of valor, but there are times, we fear, when expediency seems to be the greater part of discretion. If standards for the two types of school are not to be alike, shall inferior standards be set up for the rural high schools? We believe it would be a catastrophe to accredit rural high schools on a basis of lower quality than that set in city high schools. What differences then in standards should be made?

Shall the teachers of a high school be expected to decide whether their high school is rural or urban? Just what is a rural high school?

Every day we men who work in the state supervision and standardization of high schools must use some answers to these questions—empirical, temporary, and unsatisfactory as they often must be. These answers cannot be made satisfactorily until the meaning and values of rural life have been clearly recognized, stated, and accepted, and the relation of high school education to rural life has been thoroughly formulated. Real standardization of rural high schools awaits definitely accepted objectives in rural education.

The modern high school must give serious consideration to the following obligations:

1. The high school is primarily a community enterprise and must serve the community first of all.
2. The individual differences of high school pupils must be discovered, guided, developed and used for the service, growth, and enrichment of the community and as the basis of the happiest and most valuable careers of the pupils.
3. The urgent demands for reasonable standardization which are now prevalent all over the country must not be neglected.

No one of these then can be disregarded without great danger. For a school to consider any one of them alone is fatal.

We believe that all high schools, whether rural or urban, should recognize the vital importance of these obligations to serve the community welfare, to provide for individual differences and to make the organization and administration of the school conform to reasonable requirements of standardization. But when we consider the average rural high school with its enrolment of less than fifty pupils, its limited teaching force, meager building facilities and equipment, and restricted curricula we realize that much achievement in any of these directions is difficult.

There are other special problems which the rural high school must consider seriously. Some of these are as follows:

1. A smaller proportion of rural children attend high school than of urban children. This seems to be true even where facilities for high school children are as convenient for the rural population as for that of the cities.
2. The ratio of boys to girls in the rural high schools is smaller than in those of the cities.
3. Farm children show a wide scattering of ability; rural high schools undoubtedly have to serve a pupil group which exhibits wide individual differences.

The claim has been made that rural children are inferior to urban children in mental ability. The evidence for this claim is not conclusive or convincing to many of us. But there seems to be good ground for the belief that pupils in rural high schools show a wide scattering in ability and in individual differences.

In our impatience we may ask why the rural high school seems so persistent in the neglect of the urgent needs of the community and its children. A part of the answer to this question is that the high school

in the country seems to be the last stronghold of the traditional philosophy of secondary education of three or four decades ago. So far as any objectives at all are consciously held in mind, in many of these schools three of the main ones to be recognized are as follows:

1. To make the country high school an imitation of a reduced sort of the city high school of the last century.
2. To make the school a mental gymnasium for formal discipline of the type so largely abandoned by our best high schools.
3. To prepare pupils for college entrance requirements which were in large part abandoned years ago by many of our colleges.

The correction of these conditions will be possible only when the meaning and values of rural life have been clearly formulated and stated, when life in the country presents as powerful and dignified an appeal to young people as city life now holds, and when the relation of the high school to the community and its future have been clearly defined and forcibly presented to the principals and teachers in rural high schools. The standardization of rural high schools awaits definitely accepted objectives of rural education.

RURAL EDUCATION IN THE STATE PROGRAM

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The basic nature of our government is such that the nation must rise or fall as its educational system supplies, or fails to supply, the process for the realization of its political ideals. The progressive realization of these ideals upon which our government is founded is conditioned, therefore, upon equalization of educational opportunity and upon the fostering and strengthening of those factors, which in their operation, tend to produce equalization of educational opportunity. It follows that the nature of the state's interest in education is such that its various social programs must be developed so as to maintain relative values, and that underlying any specific educational interest must be a philosophy that has in mind the general welfare of the state.

The state program of education, if the public schools are to perform their prime function as the interpreter and preserver of national ideals, must be developed, so that the interdependence of the various parts will be defined in terms of mutual interest, obligations, and responsibilities, with the so-called rural program clearly visioned as an integral part of the state program. The outstanding need in rural education is a crystal clear recognition of the fact that the state is an entity and that every one of its parts has an equity in and a fundamental responsibility for all phases of education that have to do with the rural communities.

As part of such a state program, the rural program must challenge the imagination and deserve the support not only of the rural community but

of the urban community as well. The various types of communities have failed to realize that an important part of their own program is a clear understanding of its relative value to the general educational policy of the state.

The point I wish to emphasize here is that the town dweller, contrary to a very common concept, has a vital concern in rural education and that the dweller in the "wide open spaces" has a vital interest in the urban situation. An important phase of this interest on the part of the urban community, and one which has not had great consideration to date, has to do with the educational aspects of the flow of population from the rural areas to the urban centers. In a very real sense rural education appears to represent the preliminary education for an appreciable proportion of our urban population. Here is an almost virgin field for research. What is the rate of flow in the population shift from the rural to the urban community? What is the significance of this so far as the educational institution is concerned? Has it any significance so far as the course of study is concerned? We need to study intensively the social fabric of the urban community and trace to the source those threads which come from the rural communities.

It is significant that the large meaning of this interdependence is gradually seeping into the urban consciousness. The illustration of this is found in the domain of public health service. Large urban communities have come to see that individual self-preservation, so far as health is concerned, is closely related to certain aspects of rural life. It is essential that the hogs be sound, and the milk be pure. It is not yet so readily apparent, however, that the most economical method in the long run to secure this, is to make sure that the rural dweller has high ideals and then adequate opportunity to approximate realization.

The importance of the health situation is apparent and fairly easy to demonstrate, but it is just as true that in all of our social reactions there is an inseparable tie-up between the urban and rural interest. It is child's play to quarantine against "hog cholera," as compared with the maintenance of a quarantine against the ills that follow human ignorance and depravity. By the same token, rural education has some concern not only with those who presumably will remain in the rural community, and this, of course, is the large problem, but it has some concern with that percent which will change its habitat.

The philosophy that must be driven home is a simple realization that all groups are members of a large family with its perpetual problems of infancy, youth, old age, and dependency and the mutual obligations and responsibilities confronting the members of the family are always present. The interdependence of the various types of community life that go to make up a state must be clearly recognized in developing a modern educational program, and such a program from the very outset must realize that unequal opportunity for any part means undesirable results for every other part.

Granting the interdependence of the various parts, it must be self-evident that a program will be sound and workable in direct proportion as it results

in cooperative effort upon the part of those having an equity in the result. Such a program must from the very first give to the rural communities the common inheritances of a great state as well as those things needed to meet the requirements of individual situations. The rural program must, therefore, be professionally sound, financially feasible, administratively workable, and possible of interpretation to its beneficiaries.

It is not my purpose to discuss at this time the status of education as a profession. I am assuming as an administrative officer of the state that education is a profession and that there is available in the great technical institutions and in the professions at large the necessary technical advice and assistance if state leadership has the vision to utilize such technical assistance. In other words, state leadership must insist that the accumulated experience of the profession be incorporated in the state program.

The curriculum must be adapted to the varying needs of the children of all the people. The personnel must be progressively prepared with a full understanding of these needs. This means adaptation of the normal school courses and provision for in-service training and inspiration. It comprehends the professional use of the institute, the extension class, and the teacher conference for all purposes. It means that there must be first, an understanding of the necessity for support and, second, a reasonable plan for securing such support. The assistance to the layman must be positive and constructive on these two vital points.

The justification for financial support is one phase of the larger problem of interpreting the schools to the people. It is in my judgment one of the outstanding needs. There must flow into our legislatures through the representatives of the people a sympathetic attitude and understanding and a faith in our profession. This is a contribution that can be made only by the teacher in the first line trenches.

Responsibility for reasonable plans for financial support is no doubt debatable. In my judgment professional leadership can no longer take the position that ours is the business of spending money with the implication that it is the business of the local community and the legislature to supply it in limitless quantities.

The whole problem of financial support is inextricably tied up with the ideals of the local community and the state, and as a profession we must assume responsibility for setting up and justifying sound adequate ideals not only in terms of desired educational results, but also of equalization of the burden of support.

Here again the best professional technic is available for the state program. The important problems of the size of the unit, the relative distribution of the burden between the state and the local community and the character of the taxables become uppermost.

Basically we can not escape the proposition that in our form of government, the power is with the people, but that the responsibility for education is a state function and that therefore in final analysis, progress rests with the faith of the people in their leaders, and that leadership in a democracy

must be achieved through the machinery of cooperation and coordination. Less than this means less than democracy. The leaders must not confuse the merely complex with the profound. Education is a social process. Our leaders must be students of social phenomena. Certification, supervision, curriculums, school plants and equipments, attendance, classification, institutes, publicity, consolidation, centralization, standardization, legislation, etc., must be included in a professional perpetual inventory.

In conclusion it must be obvious that if education is to achieve its primary function the profession must "clear the decks" so far as rural education is concerned, and set up a philosophy and immediately assume the responsibility that is implied in achieving the practical objectives. This means that:

1. The ideals of our Constitution must be written into our bylaws in the form of practical minimums as approved and tested by professional leadership.

2. Relative values must be maintained among the component parts. The state can not subsidize one type of community at the expense of another.

3. The achievement of our political ideals is inseparably intertwined with the realization of our educational ideals.

4. The question is not primarily the cost, but rather the quality and quantity of the value received for the money expended.

5. The form of our democracy necessarily implies dependence upon leaders. Leadership implies as its outstanding qualification the ability to hold respect and confidence. Rural education needs more than anything else courageous, understanding and sympathetic leaders who vision the problem in its proper perspective in relation to the other important problems in the educational field.

Finally, the ideals that characterize our nation and are essential to its growth and perpetuity can not be realized if we do not adequately care for the education in citizenship and economic efficiency of the girls and boys of our rural communities.

THE SOCIAL ASPECTS OF RURAL EDUCATION, WITH PARTICULAR REFERENCE TO THE LEADERSHIP OF THE COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT

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The last phase of my topic first appeals to me because I well realize that the leadership of the county superintendent in the social aspect of rural education, as in all other lines of work, depends largely upon the opportunity that is given him to lead. In those parts of the country where the old method still holds of electing the county superintendent by popular vote, I must confess that it takes some imagination and optimism for me to put myself in the place of such a county superintendent who must spend considerable time paving his way toward the next successful election, as long as this election depends, not so much upon real educational achievement

during a term of office as upon popular favor, and as long as the term of office is limited in time, just so long will it be the case that the community often leads the superintendent in social and every other kind of relationship. This is not always true but it takes unusual "back-bone" to stand firmly for progress when a superintendent sees his rival gaining the election on some such slogan as "What was good enough for our fathers is good enough for us!" "Down with fads and fancies!" "Long live the little old red schoolhouse!"

Those superintendents who are working under the county unit plan or in New England—under the union supervision idea—do not always realize their blessedness and sometimes do not take into account that at the start in this matter of social leadership they have, through the method of election, a psychological advantage over the one not so elected. The first characteristic of a leader is strong personality but a certain amount of assurance that one's efforts will avail something and not be wholly overthrown at the next election—if that personality has proved to be a bit too strong for the "yes, yes" communities—is necessary to that pose of attitude and air of decision which we all admit to be prerequisite of a leader's personality. The more the rural department can help, through every avenue, to take our rural schools out of politics over the country, the more we will make it possible at the start for the country superintendent to assume the leadership, socially and otherwise, which should be his. In other words, let us work that our county superintendents may be "leading educators" and not "leading politicians."

With the above in mind it is nevertheless true that the county superintendent and his co-workers must recognize the fact that rural education has an increasing responsibility toward the social life of rural communities. Perhaps the ideal organization of a community for a healthy community life is typified by a splendid little rural town in Maine where the most impressive sight on the village street is a row of three buildings—the little consolidated school, the village church and the Grange hall, typical of the cooperation which should exist between these important agencies.

The Rural Department of the National Education Association has already studied for some years the different recognized organizations for rural social life—the Four H Clubs, the various forms of service rendered by the Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations, the Grange, the Parent-Teacher Association and the School Improvement League. In my own state the School Improvement League adapts itself particularly well to the superintendent with widely separated schools as he can identify himself with this work at a distance. He can act as a clearinghouse for suggestions, can supply materials and keep thus in touch with pupils, teachers, and citizens when it is not possible to be present in person. Kenyon Butterfield, in his book "Chapters in Rural Progress," says:

The best example of this work is a plan that is being used in the state of Maine, and is performed through the agency of what is called a school improvement

league. The purposes of the league are: (1) to improve school grounds and buildings; (2) to furnish suitable reading-matter for pupils and people; (3) to provide works of art for schoolrooms. There may be three forms of the league: the local leagues organized in each school; the town leagues, whose membership consists of the officers of the local leagues; and a state league, whose members are delegates from the town leagues and members of the local leagues who hold school diplomas. Any pupil, teacher, school officer, or any other citizen may join the league on payment of the dues. The minimum dues are one cent a month for each pupil, for other members not less than ten cents a term. But these dues may be made larger by vote of the league. These leagues were first organized in 1898 and they have already accomplished much. They have induced school committees to name various rural schools for distinguished American citizens, as Washington, Lincoln, and others prominent in history. They give exhibitions and entertainments for the purpose of raising funds. Sometimes they use these funds to buy books for the schoolroom. The books are then loaned to the members of the league; at the end of the term this set of books is exchanged for another set of books from another school in the same township. In this way, at a slight expense, each school may have the use of a large number of books every year. The same thing is done with pictures and works of art, these being purchased and exchanged in the same way. Through the efforts of the league, schoolhouses have been improved inside and out, and the school grounds improved. It is not so much the doing of new things that has been attempted by this league. The important item is that the school has been organized for these definite purposes, and the work is carried on systematically from year to year. It needs no argument to show the value of this sort of cooperation to the pupil, to the teacher, to the school, to the parents, and ultimately to the community as a whole.

In many rural communities and in many consolidated schools the parent-teacher organization is doing excellent work. The several current books on rural school management and rural community life each take up in helpful detail these definite organizations for securing and utilizing community interest. It is not, therefore, necessary to take the time in this somewhat brief discussion to review material, especially the personal leadership of the county superintendent.

Rural workers who seek to become leaders in community life must first of all be "rural minded" and must know people better than they know books. Profound scholarship in rural problems and valuable results of research are often wasted if the superintendent does not know how to get them over to the people. It must be remembered that innovations—improvements—lasting progress of any kind in a community cannot go much faster than public opinion permits. A superintendent cannot have a permanent influence upon the life of a community until he becomes one of the community in the work of the church, the grange, the Rotary, or Kiwanis—or some recognized form of community enjoyment.

The superintendent will find it greatly to his advantage to cultivate the ability to stand upon his feet and express himself clearly, briefly, and attractively. The impression made upon a community by an educator who can do this is favorable from the start. In speaking at community meetings the superintendent should not try to deliver a long, learned technical "speech," nor should he "write a paper" filled with long quotations from leading educators. Truly enough, these things should have a part in form-

ing his own philosophy of education but a community meeting is much interested in the superintendent's original and simple presentation of educational procedure as applied to that community. Dare to be yourselves and try to cultivate a power of ready and apt illustration. Study the address of Abraham Lincoln and the teachings of Christ to see how wonderfully impressive illustrations from common, simple events may become.

The superintendent also may do much to create an impression that will result in his eventual leadership by going about to the homes of the community and learning first hand what his constituency is thinking about, what they are choosing for their leisure hours—with what they are surrounding the children whose work during school days the superintendent must direct. In turn the educator may make it seem to the worried taxpayer more worthwhile.

Above all the superintendent must be "rural minded." People are constituted so that some are happy, even with discomforts, in certain environments which are exceedingly depressing to those persons of opposite make-up. For example, in my own case, any prolonged stay in a large city is depressing. As I see myself, one of the million "ants" coming out of a New York subway, I realize as never elsewhere what is meant by "the futility of life." The sense of nobody caring, people too busy to stop for a friendly word, the hectic struggle to get somewhere one is not, all take hope and ambition out of me. Neighbors to chat with in between times, somebody to notice enough to wonder how I can afford that new hat, somebody to reprove me for my absence from the bean supper last night are all as the breath of life to me. So may I not call myself rural minded? To be sure, sometimes I weary of the cold water in the ice pitcher, of too great comment upon my coming and going and the choice of my apparel. Sometimes I long right then and there to hear some wonderful music or a great orator's voice, or to see a glorious scene reproduced on canvas by a great artist instead of the one daily painted by nature's hand—but not more so than any person in any walk of life occasionally longs for the sights and sounds foreign to his daily habitat. If, amidst these rural scenes, one constantly feels scornful, constantly makes mental reservations in his dealing with rural people, looks on his enforced stay in a country place as "the winter of his discontent," then we may safely judge that he is not "rural minded." That person should certainly not engage in rural work nor seek to be a leader in any rural community. The real "rural minded" person may see far lights beckon, may hear distant voices call, may be tempted by positions of greater ease and larger financial return but when it comes to giving up this rural work, to leaving his opportunity for service in a place where there are still friends and neighbors, he will reply as did Ruth to Naomi in the beautiful days of old:

Entreat me not to leave thee or to return from following after thee; for whither thou goest I will go and where thou lodgest I will lodge; thy people shall be my people and thy God my God. Where thou diest, will I die and there will I be buried; the Lord do so to me and more also, if aught but death part thee and me.

THE RELATION OF THE FACTORS IN EDUCATION—THE CHILD—THE LEARNING PROCESS—THE TEACHER

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There are two phases to our work in Winnetka—the individual and the social. Both aim at the same thing—the adaptation of the individual child to his membership in the social group. Because our individual work has been stressed so much in the past, I am going to emphasize our attitude toward social development.

We are running our schools to fit children for life—and there is only one way to do that. It is to make the schools themselves the center and inspiration of all the child's activities. Arithmetic, reading, spelling, and other subject-matter of our curriculum are only tools of living. They are necessary tools to be sure, but life itself is a complex social experience, of which activity is the keynote.

Of equal importance with subject-matter is the child's response to ethical situations within the school and in outside life. For instance, when Johnny cheats in a test, we are faced with a situation of greater importance than whether or not Johnny knows how to find the answers. We are faced with even a more important problem than punishing Johnny for his evil ways. How do the rest of his fellows regard Johnny's act? If Johnny was knowingly dishonest, he expects the teacher to disapprove, if she catches him. But too often he knows that he will in all probability have the approval of his classmates in his attempt to outwit the teacher. Here is a situation which strikes deep at the root of his ethical responses. Here in the classroom are situations which will determine his own response to situations of trust in after life—experiences which account for dishonesties in public life. And here in their tacit approval of outwitting authority, the rest of the class are receiving the training which will make them complaisant in the face of business and public chicanery in adult life.

These are living issues with which the teacher must be prepared to deal. He must recognize them as social situations, and so direct the group response that such situations are seen in their real light and are condemned by the other pupils. An individual may defy authority while his fellows approve and sit complaisantly by, but few individuals will fly in the face of public opinion. In adult life we meet that situation in the present attitude of Americans toward the 18th Amendment.

This attitude toward law has its origin in the schoolroom—and it is in the school that situations must be created which will bring public opinion to condemn the wrong-doer and disapprove his acts.

The teacher should be guide and director of these activities and must abdicate the position of dictator. Public opinion can only be made effective when its strength is recognized and directed. As a stimulator and guide of his children in effective social living, the teacher will find a bigger and more influential job than as lawgiver and dictator of assignments. The ma-

terial and methods of instruction will be some of the tools which he will use in adapting the children to their environment—but they must be recognized as tools and not ends in themselves.

When parental kickers descend on your schools, as they occasionally do upon ours, demanding that the schools limit themselves to training for proficiency in the three R's of the "little red schoolhouse," let us remind them that society now demands of our schools that their products be prepared to live well, in their lives outside of school—and that training for such living is becoming increasingly the obligation of the school. The test of the school of the present and future is the manner in which its pupils respond to the ethical problems which they encounter in life. And the test of the good teacher is the extent to which he can turn the tools of education and the life contacts of his children into laboratory experiments in good living.

To do this, to take a situation of unfairness on the playground, and make of it an experience in civic responsibility takes time. Today the job of teaching occupies so much time that we are forced to close our eyes to many of the social situations on playground and in schoolroom which are part of our job of ethical training, because we haven't time to undertake their social solution. Our problem is many times increased by the fact that with class instruction the bright boys and girls find time on their hands in which to concoct mischief, while we labor with the slow ones. While on the other hand, the very slow ones, who find themselves unable to grasp what is going on, sit with bowed heads expecting and getting the caustic criticism of their teachers and the jibes and jeers of their classmates, because of their intellectual inferiority. But their minds must be engaged, and beneath many of those sluggish exteriors the human mind is struggling for some social compensation—and we find them breaking out at the most unexpected places with misbehavior which will win them the thoughtless plaudits of their brighter fellows.

Our technic of individual instruction as developed in Winnetka aims to organize much of the school work so that there is always something new in advance for the bright pupil to do—and material so arranged that the slow pupil may reread and ponder, seeking for that point of the explanation which escaped him to begin with. What we are doing may be expressed in three steps:

First we are expressing the curriculum in concrete terms—eliminating all dead wood, in an attempt to retain in the general course only those things which every one needs to master equally well. This has meant cutting out a lot of material which you and I had to wade through when we were in school. Out goes shingling, papering the wall, laying carpet, and figuring board measure. Not one in a hundred of us have ever found occasion to do any one of these things—and when that one came to do it, he didn't remember what his arithmetic text had taught him, but went by rule of thumb, general knowledge of how to measure, or the directions on the package. In the place of the dead wood thus eliminated, we demand a

greater accuracy and mastery of those fundamental processes and principles which are retained. No longer do we promote on 60 percent or 70 percent, but we demand that each child do each unit of work with 100 percent accuracy—or as near that as is physically possible.

Once we have determined what it is that all children must know, we try to express that in terms of concrete achievements—"The ability to add so many columns, so many addends high, in three minutes," "the ability to use capital letters in the correct places in the address of an envelope," etc.

Second, it is necessary to provide some objective measure which will determine whether or not children have mastered each of these units of achievement. To do this we have developed a series of standardized and objective tests covering each "goal." When a child completes the practice work of any unit, he first tests himself on a "pupil's practice test," and if he finds himself 100 percent perfect on this test, he applies to his teacher for a final standardized test. Passing this test, he is ready for the next unit of work, and may proceed independently of his fellows. If he fails the test, it is in a majority of cases diagnostic and keyed in such a manner that it indicates to what portion of his practice work he should turn for additional explanation and drill.

Third, and perhaps most important for the smooth operation of the whole scheme, we are developing a series of self-teaching practice exercises, leading up by graded steps to the complete mastery of each goal. These self-instruction lessons may be placed directly in the hands of the children. They are addressed directly to the children, in language carefully graded to the comprehension of the age-group, and they explain and illustrate each step of every process, and supply the necessary drill exercises. These drill exercises are self-corrective—that is, the answers are provided and keyed in such a manner that the child may locate the sources of his own weakness, and by referring back to earlier sections of work, review his difficulties. As rate of progress is purely individual, and as advancement is controlled by standardized tests which are supervised and corrected by the teacher, a child soon discovers that there is no advantage to cheating himself while doing the practice work, if he is so inclined, and we find little tendency to such dishonesty.

I think you can see at once the advantage of such material in an ungraded room, or small country school, where children in all stages of advancement are clamoring for attention and help from the teacher. By means of such materials, placed in the hands of each child, the child will have at all times definite explanatory materials from which he can secure the explanations for which he had formerly to depend on the teacher. If, while working arithmetic, he encounters a snag which will not resolve itself in spite of his most energetic endeavors, he can check that difficulty in the book, for future reference when it comes his turn to receive personal help from the teacher, and he can then turn to his spelling, his language or some other subject in which the material is also individualized, and devote his time to that—instead of wasting it waiting for explanations.

In all of the material which we are developing we are increasing materially the amount of practice work provided. You teachers who have spent hours at night preparing sheets of additional examples for Tom Jones, in order to perfect him on some process that had escaped him in the examples provided by the text, will appreciate what it means to have additional units of practice material, organized in each case about a given step or difficulty and offering practice upon that particular type. This practice material is divided into a, b, and c sections, each involving the same difficulties. The bright child usually masters the work in the drill offered by the "a" section—the slower children, or those encountering special difficulties using the "b" or "c" sections.

While we are preparing materials of instruction in the social studies which offer vastly richer readings, self-directed map location work, etc., which for a one-room school containing all grades would be far superior to the usual text book in either history or geography, we ourselves consider the social studies as distinctly socializing material. Around the core of enriched readings we are building a large amount of discussion, dramatization, debate, project work, etc., in which all children participate as members of a social group. Progress in the social studies is as a group, rather than individually.

In conclusion, I would say that individualization of work, together with subject promotions when the work is complete, has resulted in great economies in time for both pupil and teacher. This time has enabled us to develop hitherto untouched realms of social, civic and moral experiences—has in fact, enabled us to make the school in a very real sense the center of the child's life experiences. Because we feel so keenly that one learns to live by living—that better living can come through growth and experience under wise direction—we believe that we are approximating a wiser relationship between the child, the teacher, and the learning process.

THE ONE-TEACHER SCHOOL—SPECIAL FEATURES— ORGANIZATION AND PROCEDURE

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There are two processes which must be clearly differentiated in the discussion of this subject—the teaching process and management or procedure. It is the program for procedure which will be discussed in this paper.

Teaching—Teaching is the process of one person helping another to learn. The process must be guided by the nature of the learner and the experience which the learner has previously had.

The nature of children is practically the same whether they live in the country or in a city. The previous experience of these two classes is quite different. The teaching process then need differ only because of their basal experience. Teaching of a subject is the same for both, due consideration being given the difference in experience.

Procedure—The procedure, the manner of conducting the school, must be determined by the conditions under which the teaching is to be done.

The determining conditions in a one-teacher school and a graded school require a decidedly different procedure.

Grading the One-Teacher School—It was perfectly natural when the one-teacher school was graded that the methods used in the graded school were adopted by the teachers who were themselves educated in the graded school. It was a decided step in advance when the one-teacher school adopted a regular course of study and divided the course into year's work in accordance with the advancement of the pupils. It was, however, a fatal mistake when the attempt was made to conduct the day's work with each grade as it is conducted in a room where there is but one grade, when there are eight grades in the one-teacher school.

In the graded school exclusive, group or class instruction has been the rule from the first. Even in the graded school this method has been very unsatisfactory to thoughtful and forward-looking educators. Great efforts are being made to find a way to serve the needs of the individual pupil, for it has been found that all cannot be adequately served by group instruction only. They find it difficult to break away from the method to which every one has become accustomed. Their problem is complicated in many ways. Our task is not so difficult for the situation is less complicated.

In the one-teacher school there are really no classes. One or even five pupils do not constitute a class except in name. They are so many individuals whose needs may be met either as individuals or in groups, as seems best. The school is a big family composed of children of all ages living with a teacher of mature mind and character. This is a decided advantage over a room full of children of the same age.

As the school is now conducted, copying the graded school, the teacher has only a few minutes with the group; the rest of the time he serves only as policeman. The situation is favorable. He can so organize and conduct his school that he will have ample time to serve the needs of every one of his pupils. It is only necessary to devise a program, being guided by pedagogical principles, instead of copying the graded school. A correct program will not teach the school, but it will make conditions favorable for good teaching.

Guiding Principles

A school defined—A school is a place where under the guidance of a teacher, children may learn those things which enable them now and in the future, to be and to do what will bring the greatest good to themselves and to others with whom they live. A school gives the children the opportunity, under favorable conditions, to educate themselves. The children themselves must do the work. The teacher and others can only make conditions favorable and help.

The chief work performed in the school—The work of greatest importance in the school is learning, not teaching. Learning is brought about by the pupil applying his mind and will to the solution of problems which confront him; that is, by study. Without this effort on the part of the pupil, the school fails.

The Teacher's Work—The work of the teacher is to give the pupil the help he needs in his efforts to learn.

First—The first step in helping the pupil is to get him to want to learn, arouse his curiosity, awaken interest in what is to be done, inspire him to make the necessary effort.

Second—The second step is to show the pupil what to do (assign the lesson) how to begin, how to proceed, and keep him at it.

Third—When the pupil is halted by difficulties which he cannot overcome, by suggestion and guidance the teacher shall help him over the difficulty that he may proceed.

Fourth—The teacher should lead the pupils in their efforts to work together in the solution of the problem, the mastery of the lesson. In all class work there should be the sense of working together, not only pupils together, but teacher and pupils together. "We will" not "you must" should be the attitude, though "you must" may be necessary in exceptional cases.

For what the program should provide—If the foregoing principles are correct, the program should be primarily a pupil's program, a program for study, and only secondarily a teacher's program, a program for instruction. The great evil of the usual program under exclusive class instruction is a program for hearing recitations. If a study time is suggested, it is so inconspicuous in the minds of pupils and teacher that it counts for little.

First—The program should provide for subject-matter and exercises suited to the needs of the learner; that is a well-planned course of study.

Second—The program should provide for ample and uninterrupted time for the pupils to study each subject.

Third—The program should provide for ample time for the teacher to help the pupils when they most need help; that is, while they are trying to study.

Fourth—The program should provide ample time for the teacher and pupils to work together in helpful class and other group activities, class instruction, discussion, and testing.

Fifth—The program should provide for two kinds of study, individual study and class study. That which pupils do at their desks is necessarily individual study.

The learning process goes on while the pupils are at their desks. It should not stop when they go to class. The class meeting should be for guidance, for conference, for stimulation of interest and effort.

Kinds of Instruction

There should be also two kinds of instruction: class instruction when the whole class may be advantageously served; individual, when the needs of each pupil may be served without embarrassing him or wasting the time of others.

The class instruction period—Suppose it is a class ready to begin long division. All are equal in that none can divide a large by a larger number.

The teacher confronts them with the difficulty, arouses their curiosity as to how to overcome it. He shows them step by step, selects another problem, requests them to tell him what to do step by step. Then he gives them an easy problem and asks them to solve it each for himself. Some succeed. He now asks one of them to show those who failed how he did it. They try another and all succeed. He says, "you know how to do it. All you need is practice. Tomorrow you may work problems and I will help those that need help. Let us see how soon we can do all the problems in the book."

Individual instruction—The day following class instruction the pupils begin to solve problems. Some have no trouble, others are "stuck" or are uncertain. The teacher should have time at the beginning of the study period to go to those who are in difficulty and help them out. The others should keep right on with their work. Of the slow pupils he requires the minimum amount of practice that will enable them to advance to the next exercise. The gifted pupils are encouraged to do even more difficult problems than those assigned to prove to themselves that they can do them.

The discussion period—The class should now meet to talk over what they have learned, the difficulties encountered and how overcome. Errors in thinking may be corrected, devices suggested to gain speed and accuracy. There should be no suggestion of a test to determine the rank of pupils. They should be encouraged to say they do not understand and to ask for help.

The test—The exclusive class instruction method has driven teachers of one-teacher schools to make every class period a test. Yesterday he had time only to tell them what to do and maybe how to do it. Today he must find out whether they did what they were told to do. He has no other way of finding out. This practice is not only of little use; it is positively injurious to the pupil by creating a wrong attitude toward the work and toward the teacher. Daily he is brought before the judgment seat and he comes to hate both the work and the teacher.

The mastery of a problem, the learning, should partake of the nature of a game. It may be harder than work but it nevertheless is a game and is enjoyed. After sufficient practice which is not unpleasant, has been undergone, comes the test. It is not dreaded; it is the culmination of the joy of the game. In working together to be ready for the test they have become friends, not judge and culprit.

Even the less gifted pupil knows he can stand the test. He knows that the teacher thinks he can stand it. He undergoes it not to prove to the teacher or to get a high mark, but to prove to himself that he can do what he undertook to learn how to do. If the test proves that some pupils are not as proficient as they should be, they will admit it and be ready for additional practice and instruction. The gifted ones can go their pace without being held back by the less gifted. The reward of the test should not be the attainment of a mark but permission to advance or opportunity to make up deficiencies.

Begin	Time	Subject	Grades	Kind of Instruction	Pages in Course
9:00 9:10 9:30 10:00 10:15	10 20 30 15 15	Gen. Exercise Reading Reading Reading Writ. & Spell.	All 4 (5, 6) (7, 8) 1, 2, 3 4 (5, 6) (7, 8) All.	Music, Current Events, etc. Individual, to classes that will not recite Class Daily. Class to those that did not have individual. Class on Alternate Days.	
10:30	15	Rest		Directed Play	
10:45 11:05 11:25	20 20 35	Arithmetic Read. & Num. Arithmetic	4, 5, 6, (7, 8) 1, 2, 3 4, 5, 6 (7, 8)	Individual to Classes that will not recite. Class Daily. Class to those that did not have individual.	
12:00	60	Noon		Lunch and Games	
1:00 1:20 1:35 1:45 2:15	20 15 10 30 15	Grammar Read. & Language Language Language & Gram. Phys. & Civics	5, 6, 7, 8 1, 2 (3, 4) 5, 6, 7, 8 (5, 6) (7, 8)	Individual to those that will not recite. Class Daily. Class to those that did not have Individual. Class or individual as desired.	
2:30	15	Rest		Directed Play	
2:45 3:00 3:20 3:40 4:00	15 20 20 20 10	Const. & Nat. Study Hist. & Geog. History Geography Dismissal	(1, 2) (3, 4) (5, 6) (7, 8) (5, 6) (7, 8) (5, 6) (7, 8)	Class Daily. Individual to those that will not recite. Class to those that did not have Individual. Class to those that did not have Individual.	

The day is made up of four sessions. Each session is devoted to a major study and during the session the pupil does his work in that subject and receives the necessary help from the teacher, either individually or in class.

First session—9:00 to 10:30—90 minutes, Major subject, Reading.

Second session—10:45 to 12:00—75 minutes, Major subject, Arithmetic.

Third session—1:00 to 2:30—90 minutes, Major subject, Language.

Fourth session—2:45 to 4:00—75 minutes, Major subject, Social Studies.

Who should have class instruction daily—The first, second, and third grades should have class instruction every day in every subject. They learn chiefly from oral instruction by the teacher. Much drill is required and what individual direction any one needs can be given in a few minutes during the individual instruction period.

The upper grades learn chiefly from books. The most valuable assistance that the teacher can give them is to guide them in the use of books as a means of learning. To make them students should be one of the chief objectives.

The first session is devoted to reading. In class exercises, the primary grades are taught how to read. Formal readers are chiefly used. The other grades are taught to read to use their power not by the use of formal readers except for drill purpose and appreciation, but by the use of library books which attract them and from which they learn something of value.

During the second session the whole school is engaged in the study of arithmetic with the exception of the first and second grades. There are four arithmetic classes, the seventh and eighth grades being combined and doing the seventh and eighth year's work in alternate years.

Twenty minutes at the beginning of the session is devoted to individual instruction to the classes that will not receive class instruction that day. The other classes pursue their study unaided.

Thirty minutes are next devoted to giving class instruction to the primary grades. The time can be apportioned to the needs of the classes.

Thirty-five minutes are next devoted to giving class instruction to the classes that did not receive individual instruction at the beginning of the session. Every class receives the services of the teacher every day.

The time for individual and class instruction is not arbitrarily fixed. The adjustment can be made to meet the needs of the classes. It may be found best to have class instruction several days in succession. Again, it may be best to give individual instruction several days in succession.

Class periods may be reduced to sixteen a day, four in each session, and yet the teacher will have twenty minutes in each session to help those who need special help. One fourth of the day the teacher is free to do real teaching where and when it is most needed, and the most effective. The average is fifteen minutes to the class, time enough to do real class work.

The pupils have definite and ample time to study a subject and not be interrupted to go to class in another subject, yet he has all the help from the teacher that he needs.

Often the whole school may be the group to receive instruction when all can profit by it. A pupil or the teacher may have found something in reading that all can enjoy. Study may be laid aside while this is read by a pupil or the teacher. Some process in arithmetic or drill for speed may be engaged in by all classes above the third grade. A pupil may give a talk on a topic in geography or history that all will enjoy. A current event may be explained to the profit of all. The younger children will thus be interested in what is to come further along in their course.

This program makes it possible for the pupil to study and the teacher to teach the fundamental subjects which give the learner intellectual equipment and power. Not only this; the force of circumstances and procedure adjust the pupil and teacher so that right attitudes and character develop naturally. The pupil soon learns without being told that he is working for himself, not for the teacher. If he succeeds in getting the child interested, he will want to do his work because it is of value to himself. The teacher helps him when he feels that he needs help. He is his friend. These are attitudes absolutely essential. We make conditions favorable for effective instruction and study, and what is of even greater importance, favorable to exercise that influence through personality and management which will awaken aspirations and establish high ideals and make these dominant in the lives of his pupils.

This procedure makes conditions favorable for the teacher to improve day by day. The best guide for a teacher to learn how to teach is a pupil eager to learn. All he needs to do is to find out what the pupil needs and do his best to help him. It gives him the opportunity to learn to teach by teaching; the only way it can be learned.

SUPERVISION OF ONE-TEACHER SCHOOLS

VERA M. TELFER, HELPING TEACHER, WARREN COUNTY, BELVIDERE, N. J.

Supervision means the training and direction of teachers both before and after beginning service.

There are about 300,000 teachers now employed in our one and two teacher schools, who are in immediate need of special direction. The 90,000 who will begin teaching next September and the following September should now be receiving special rural training which will fit them for their important work.

If we had the selection of all new teachers for our rural schools, what are some of the qualifications we would want each applicant to have? Because of the complexity of the position to be filled, it would be necessary for us to be more careful in the selection of a teacher for a rural school, than for a graded school. Some of the requirements would probably be these.

1. He should be normally intelligent.
2. He should show some native ability necessary for the success of a teacher such

as love of children, pluck and perseverance, good judgment and initiative. He should have a kind of pleasing positiveness in his personality which demands the respect of children.

3. He should be unusually healthy.

4. He should have had at least a four year high school academic course.

5. And should have had two years of special professional training in a normal school.

What should be the minimum requirements with which to begin this process of development? How can this so-called supervision, administered both before and after beginning service, best help to build up this important leader of a one-teacher school?

1. *Intelligence*—One very important factor in the make-up of a successful teacher is intelligence, and this is something which no amount of excellent training and direction can improve. A competent teacher cannot be developed from a less than competent human being, yet this is what supervisors are expected to do in a great many cases. Some people who are almost morons take up the teaching profession because they cannot do anything else. They have the idea that anybody can teach a country school, and the public too often acquiesces.

2. *Personality*—Some people never will make good teachers, no matter how intelligent they are. They lack something very hard to define—something, which for want of a better term, we call personality. It includes enthusiasm, tact, pluck, and initiative. Unless a teacher has the innate power to command the respect of children; the ability to inspire them to want to learn, his teaching will be worth nothing—worse than nothing, in fact, for boys and girls will be getting training in disobedience, laziness, and rowdiness. Something must be done to keep such people out of the teaching profession. But who is to be the judge of this personality? In New Jersey the high school principal is being asked to recommend as teachers, only those who seem fitted for the work. Let us pray for conscientious judges everywhere.

3. *Health*—Good health is an asset to every teacher, but to the teacher of the one-room school it seems essential. He has, as a rule, so many more demands for physical strength than the town teacher has. Many teachers must travel long distances to their schools over rough country roads, and have full charge of janitor work when they get there. One teacher, whom I know, travels two miles and a half down a rough mountain road, and in winter wades through deep snow. She manages to get to school each morning in time to have the schoolroom warm when the children arrive. The colder the morning, the earlier she gets there. Actual physical hardships are experienced by many rural teachers. The work is too hard for anyone who is not unusually strong. A certificate of physical fitness given only after a thorough examination should be required from every rural teacher.

4. *Academic training*—Another qualification which we all know should be demanded of a teacher is a four year high school course. Every state is working towards this goal, and many have already passed such legislation. Yet about 50 percent of our 300,000 rural teachers now in service have not

completed high school; about 10 percent or 30,000 have gone no farther than the 8th grade, and 15,000 have only finished the 6th grade. One of our special problems, then, is to work towards placing in our schools teachers who are equipped with at least a four year high school amount of subject-matter.

5. *Special professional training*—Two years of special professional training beyond a four year high school course should ultimately be the minimum requirement of teachers in every state. It will be a long time before this dream will come true, because of the great annual demand for teachers and the small number of normal schools. Very few teachers who now graduate from the normal schools enter rural schools. The high school training schools and state summer schools are helping considerably, yet about 50,000 are entering our small schools each year without one day of professional preparation. Would it be too much to set as the next step towards our goal, a minimum requirement of at least one year of professional training, whether it be in a normal school or high school training school? This should, however, be followed by another year after two years of teaching.

What special training should these teachers get in the professional schools, which will best fit them for their particular piece of work?

a. The same general course including technic of teaching, psychology, etc., might be given to rural and town teachers alike.

b. Courses in professionalized subject matter should be given by the regular teachers in these subjects, but it would be helpful if the rural students could be in special sections, so that some rural adaptation might be given to the work especially in arithmetic, reading and health training, including physical training. Nature study, the kind which stimulates observation and love of nature should, also, be a part of the rural teacher's training.

c. A special course should be given to rural teachers in rural school organization and management, since this constitutes one of the greatest difficulties of rural school work and is entirely different from the situation in a graded school. Imagine the bewilderment of a young, untrained inexperienced city girl or boy trying to untangle the maze of teaching eight grades. He must have help, or hours and hours of pupils' time will be wasted.

d. Probably the most helpful part of this pre-service training is the actual practice teaching in the one-teacher school under careful supervision.

Rural supervision is quite new. It began in this country about ten years ago, and supervisors have had to learn by experience just how they can be of the greatest possible help. They have learned that the general principles of supervision are the same for country and city, but because of the greater difficulty and variety of problems to be solved, the teacher of the one-room school needs certain special direction.

1. *Arranging study groups and making the daily program*—When a new teacher arrives in his school for the first time, he is confronted with a heterogeneous group of children all at different stages of development. In some way he must find out as quickly as possible an answer for certain questions: How much does each child know and what should he learn next? In what grade or study-group does he belong? What books should each child be

given? How should the program be arranged in order to give each pupil the greatest possible help?

If there is a rural supervisor in this county he has already anticipated some of these problems, and the new teacher finds in his desk a list of the pupils, the grade and study-group to which each belongs, and the subject-matter and books with which to begin work. There is, also, a copy of the program used the previous year. In order to give this help the supervisor must each year become acquainted with the ability and achievement of the individual pupils. This is where the standard test has proven to be of valuable service. Towards the end of each school year the teacher and supervisor consult the summary sheet of test results, take into consideration the child's every day efforts and achievements, his age, health, etc., and they together decide into which group each boy and girl will be likely to develop most the following year.

The supervisor arrives as soon as possible in the fall, he examines the situation and is able to give the teacher help in making any necessary changes. Some state departments send out very helpful suggestions on the grouping of grades and the making of daily programs, but no two schools are exactly alike, and the classification of pupils and program or work in a given school this year may not fit conditions in the same school next year. This work of adaptation is a big problem and one in which the rural teacher is in great need of help.

2. *Teaching children how to study*—Special direction is needed by the one-room teacher in teaching his pupils how to study. The real test of a teacher's success or failure lies in the answer to the question, "How much are the children learning?" The amount of learning depends upon how well the pupils have acquired the art of studying. Therefore, the teacher, who is a success has taught the children how to study. This applies to the town teacher as well as to the rural teacher, but because of the greater amount of unsupervised study time given to pupils of a one-teacher school, the rural teacher has the greater task. Good assignments given by the teacher are the key to good study on the part of the pupils. Therefore, assignments which are more than mere page assignments are especially necessary in a one-teacher school. So-called seatwork, if educational, is nothing but independent study, and, therefore, should be carefully planned, assigned and tested by the teacher. The rural supervisor must help in this task of keeping the little children profitably employed at their seats for several hours every day. A good assignment means thoughtful planning. The work of the day should be so arranged that the teacher will not have too many assignments to make; hence the necessity of gathering the children into study groups.

To be successful, the rural teacher must learn to realize the importance of the class periods for these study groups as an aid in teaching children how to study. The so-called recitation period should not be simply an opportunity for the children to tell the teacher what they have learned, but it should be largely a study lesson. It should point the way to individual

study, by introducing the subject in such a way that the children will want to do independent work. Through study questions it should help the pupils to select the important parts. It is not always necessary to have a class period every day in the upper grades, but whenever there is one, the teacher has an opportunity to teach his pupils how to organize and summarize the ideas gained through independent study. All of these are important steps in the art of study, therefore, the rural teacher should receive special direction in their use.

3. *Selecting and adapting subject-matter*—Another kind of help which the teacher of the one-room school is especially in need of, is in selecting and adapting subject-matter which best fits the needs of boys and girls. This is particularly necessary in the country school, because in most states there is no course of study for rural schools. Teachers are given the state course of study which includes an amount of subject-matter which it is impossible to cover efficiently in a one-teacher school. The most important, worth while parts must be selected.

Another reason why the selection of subject-matter is especially necessary in the country school is because of the lack of up-to-date and suitable textbooks in many schools. The habit of literally teaching from the textbook is, therefore, especially harmful.

4. *Keeping in mind the real purpose of education—the making of citizens*—Because of the multitude of the every day duties of a rural teacher, it is easy for him to forget the big purpose of all of his efforts—the making of citizens. Each visit of the supervisor should help him to develop that kind of democratic discipline which will establish in the boys and girls ideals of good citizenship; which will create habits of good citizenship through actual practice in fair play, industry, honesty, kindness, cheerfulness, etc., and in bearing responsibilities in citizenship in their own school; it should become the style to be good citizens because of pupil public opinion, rather than because of the teacher's orders.

The formation of good health habits is another important phase in the making of citizens, which needs special emphasis in the country. In many counties rural supervisors are helping the teachers to make use of health clubs, civic clubs, or young American clubs as a means of teaching citizenship.

5. *Stimulation for growth*—A teacher in an isolated one-room school is very apt to get into a rut. He doesn't have the stimulation from daily contact with other teachers. Very few people come to the school unless it is to complain about something. Nobody seems to care, and he is apt to say, "What's the use of trying?" There is need of a rural supervisor—one who will capitalize the teacher's ability for growth—one who will stimulate and inspire him with enthusiasm and eagerness to improve.

Good judgment, self-reliance, initiative are qualities which should be developed especially in a rural teacher. The exercise of judgment has to be brought into play more frequently by a teacher in a one-room school than by one in a graded school, for he has to deal not only with the children,

but with parents and board members, and with the community at large. He has the entire school system to manage. Such an important individual must develop a certain intelligent independence and initiative, and his supervisor should find ways to help him.

6. *Working for certain definite goals of attainment in classroom subjects*—The rural supervisor is confronted each day with a great variety of problems. He must grow in the ability to quickly see the needs of each school, and give help where needed. There should, however, be a certain clearcut county plan for improvement in some definite subject or subjects each year. The interest and cooperation of the rural teacher is best obtained if too much is not attempted at once. Let us say, for example, that reading is being stressed throughout the districts. Tests should be given at the beginning of the year and standards of attainment set up. Help and direction should then be given towards the attainment of the goals established. This should be followed by another test so that teachers and pupils may see the results of their efforts.

This type of supervision is especially helpful in rural schools, because teachers then have an opportunity to compare their results with those of nearby schools and it makes them feel that they are a part of a county plan of improvement.

7. *Friendly help and encouragement*—The rural supervisor must be first and always a friend and helping teacher; not so much a superior but a co-worker in the carrying out of the plans which he, the county superintendent and the teachers themselves have agreed are for the best interests of the schools. His arrival at the school should not be a dreaded event, but a welcome one to the teacher and to the pupils. He should give tests and teach classes in such a way as to add an incentive for better school work. He should take an interest in the progress of individual pupils, and especially of the eighth grade pupils. He should play games with the children. In fact he should show an interest in everything connected with the school. By consciously looking for and commending whatever is worthy of praise, the supervisor is able to give to the rural teacher one of the biggest possible helps—encouragement to “carry on.” He knows that he has a friend who cares and has faith in him.

RURAL SUPERVISION IN MARYLAND

M. THERESA WIEDEFELD, ASSISTANT STATE SUPERVISOR OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, BALTIMORE, MD.

In Maryland we are so thoroughly convinced of the value of good school supervision that we believe that if a good supervisor is at work in a county all impediments in the way of good schools will be overcome. School boards are so sure of it as a means of improving all phases of school work that they are willing to bid against other counties for a good supervisor, and to outbid a competing county should another position be offered to a supervisor whom they employ. Parents of children are so confident of its

value to the teachers and to their children that they frequently send special requests to the supervisor to visit their school. They try to keep informed on what the supervisor is doing and become dissatisfied with teachers who do not follow his suggestions.

We believe also that the position of supervisor is one of the most difficult in the teaching profession, and we know that it is very hard to find people fully qualified to meet its many demands.

The supervisor must above all be a teacher of teachers. We may call him a supervising teacher, or a helping teacher—he supervises and he helps—but he is above all a teaching teacher. If teachers are to improve they must learn and he who guides and directs learners is a teacher.

His group is composed of teachers ranging from thirty in the smallest county to an average of fifty or sixty in the largest counties. They are scattered about in one or two room schools at distances of four or five miles apart. They fall into as many groups as the children of a rural school. There are beginning teachers and teachers of experience, teachers who need a great deal of help and teachers who can progress with every opportunity, formal teachers, and teachers of the freedom type, teachers who are workers, and teachers who are shirkers, and the supervisor must help each one to become the best teacher he is capable of being.

Like the teacher of a rural school he must do mass teaching, group teaching, and individual teaching. The rural supervisors of Maryland bring all of the teachers of their group together at least once a year, sometimes oftener. There are policies, plans for improvement, suggestive procedures which are for every teacher and every child. In addition they hold small group meetings of teachers of the same locality, of the same experience, or having the same difficulties or similar problems.

These meeting are judged by the same standards by which we judge classroom teaching. Those are:

1. Purposes or objectives as evidenced by his organization of materials and activities, as evidenced by his distribution of time and emphasis.
2. The realization of purposes as evidenced by teacher participation, as measured by the knowledge, principles of education, devices, standards, inspiration, gained by each individual.
3. The supervisor's technic as evidenced by his method of questioning, of handling teacher's contributions, of organizing materials, of clinching and summarizing, of providing in his planning and in his executing for review and drill and for development and discussion of new problems and procedures, and for maintaining right balance between theory and practice, caring all the while for individual differences among the teachers, stimulating initiative, providing opportunities for developing leadership, and assuring some help to every teacher in the group.
4. The supervisor's philosophy of supervision as evidenced by his plan and method of conducting the meeting, by its tone or atmosphere, by the attitude of the teachers.

The quality of teachers' meetings has greatly improved in the last few years. All kinds and phases of teachers' meetings have been discussed at our conferences of supervisors conducted by the assistant state superintendent, Miss Simpson. The bulletin, *Worthwhile Teachers Meetings*, was

given not only to the supervisors but to the teachers. Last year and this year we held sectional meetings of supervisors in various counties of the state for the purpose of observing a supervisor conduct a teachers' meeting and evaluating it in the light of the standards mentioned previously.

We face problems here and there which seem difficult to remedy. As meetings are lifted to a higher professional plane there is a danger of making them strained. Teachers and supervisors work long and earnestly, the air becomes charged with tension, the supervisor becomes pitched too high, and teachers respond in a similar key.

The expert leader who can play with thoughts upon a group, decrease restraint and stimulate responsiveness, must be a deep thinker if he would stimulate thinking, must be understanding and sympathetic if he would arouse confidence, must have a sense of wit if he would prevent tenseness, and must be artistic if he would be soothing to his hearers.

Such a combination is hard to find in one individual; so, many meetings will continue to be all work, some will be more enjoyable than others, and some will be crude in the monotony of procedure or the colorless presentation of the leader.

All will be helpful to the teacher in proportion to the worthwhileness of the material presented in its relation to needs which are *felt to be real* by the teachers.

We have found that the individual teaching, classroom visiting, is more difficult for some than the group teaching; for some it is the other way. The success of classroom visiting depends in the main upon the ability of the supervisor to adjust himself, his personality, his knowledge, his personal opinions, his tastes, his intelligence, to the classroom situation in which he finds himself. His work there is diagnosis and prescription.

He needs to study the physical equipment; what the teacher has to work with, what he can improve and what he cannot, and how he uses what he has. He needs to study the personal equipment of the teacher; his training, knowledge of subject-matter, teaching aptitude, physical condition, daily preparation, temperament, attitude toward the supervisor.

From a consideration of these he must judge just how much he can expect and with that in mind, he watches children to see if they are learning, if they are working at maximum capacity; if they are improving along any line, if they are doing worthwhile things. He watches the teacher to discover why he is succeeding or failing. On the basis of this diagnosis he decides upon his line of procedure.

If the teacher seems to have no grasp of how he ought to proceed, if he starts to teach a second lesson following the same poor procedure, if he seems to have the right principles but does not know how to put them into practice, or if he asks for teaching, the supervisor will teach for him. The supervisor who has not had sufficient teaching experience to enable him to plan a lesson which will help the teacher at the time when help is vital to the teacher and pupils in ten or fifteen minutes, cannot do the type of supervision we do in Maryland. Our experience has shown us that

a rich teaching experience under good supervision is a far more necessary and valuable preparation for supervision than college courses in supervision. It gives him standards by which he can evaluate teaching. It provides a background of ready material from which he can recreate practical suggestions for the teachers.

If the teacher shows preparation and ability to go on toward some goal, and a foundation for understanding, the supervisor holds a conference with him at a convenient time when he discusses the work seen. He may have found that the teacher needs subject-matter, help with planning, with questioning, organizing, formulating problems, study assignments, adapting textbooks, etc. No matter what, all can be helped in a discussion in which teacher and supervisor work together, each with the confidence, good will, and sympathy of the other. His most important problem is to help the teacher realize his needs. Once the teacher presents a problem, is conscious of specific weaknesses, or asks for definite help, the rest is easy.

For ability to decide upon the needs of the teacher and to determine a plan of action quickly, the supervisor must depend upon his training and experience. A growing system must be built upon a growing experience; so, a supervisor needs to keep his theory and his practice up to date.

His ability to adjust himself to each individual teacher, to be able to put himself into the place of the teacher and build from there, depends upon his own personality and his power over his own temperament.

As a rule his policy should be to:

Dominate, but not domineer.

Advise, but not demand.

Encourage, but not flatter or mislead.

Analyze, but not criticize.

Stimulate, but not intoxicate.

Be sincere but not unnecessarily frank.

Be diplomatic but not deceiving.

Be kind but not too easy.

Be firm but not harsh.

Tear down only what can be rebuilt.

Just as teachers meetings have greatly improved, so also has classroom visiting. Our plan is to train supervisors in the field just as we train teachers. They are supervised by the state supervisors, who observe them at their work of visiting schools and conducting teachers' meetings, evaluate it and offer suggestions. They are brought together for two-day conferences twice a year. During the past summer all helping teachers, and supervisors new to Maryland, pursued a three-hour course in the theory and practice of supervision for six weeks under the direction of the state supervisors and credited by the Johns Hopkins University.

Our policy is not to dictate to any county its plans of supervision; it is advisory in the main. Conditions vary greatly in the different counties; supervisors differ, and our purpose is to help each supervisor do better his own work in his own way.

SOME ADVANTAGES OF THE CONSOLIDATED SCHOOL

C. G. SARGENT, DEPARTMENT OF RURAL EDUCATION, FORT COLLINS, COLO.

I see no reason why good consolidated schools should be radically different from other good schools in the same locality, county, or state. With rural free delivery of mail at the farmer's gate, the telephone, radio, moving pictures, good roads and the auto, town and country people, and especially their children, will mingle together much more freely in the near future than they have ever done in the past. On this account, and for the further reason that I believe that this is a good thing for both groups, such increased intercourse should be promoted and encouraged by all rural leaders. The fact that all roads lead to the trading center is not a bad thing from any point of view, since the interest of these two groups of rural dwellers are inseparably bound up together and since neither can function efficiently without the other. A consolidated school in a rural setting, whether the school is located in the open country or in a village, town, or small city of from one to ten thousand population should plan its courses of study and place its emphasis so as to best suit the needs of the people it serves, and the best results are not obtained by taking either of the two possible extremes, and attempt to make the school either 100 percent rural or 100 percent urban.

Every good rural village, small town, or city in Colorado is completely encircled by a fringe of rural school districts, unless they have already been consolidated, as many of them have. This is the best field we have for consolidation, and if all such possible consolidations should be effected, most of the children in the open country in my state would be cared for in the best schools that it is possible to build and operate under our conditions. No doubt the same is true of many other states. In all such consolidations with which I happen to be acquainted the country people have least to lose and most to gain by the union. In my opinion the educator who attempts to consolidate schools without first considering all of the children and all of the factors essential to a good school in the natural geographic unit, whether it be a neighborhood or community, just for the sake of locating the new school out in the open country, is, after all, not a leader, but a bungler who may do more harm than good.

The larger unit brought about by consolidation gives opportunity for certain advantages not possible of attainment in the smaller school district. It at least gives the opportunity for greater specialization on the part of teachers. It makes possible an enriched curriculum better suited to the needs of the children, and provides wider and richer social contacts for both the children and their parents. We consolidate schools to create better schools, with larger and better grounds, new and better buildings, modern and adequate equipment, better trained teachers, local supervision, better gradation of pupils, longer terms, and other obvious advantages that have proven so successful in all of our best schools. That all of these demonstrated advantages have always been immediately realized in every

case is not claimed here, but that they are being realized in a constantly increasing degree in most cases has never been successfully disputed.

What I regard as the greatest advantage of the strong consolidated school is the fact that it is a complete school unit, affording an unbroken course from the first grade through the twelfth. This type of consolidated school is a double blessing to country children. It not only provides a high school for all who are prepared to enter, but at the same time it has enough pull on the sixth, seventh and eighth grades to keep thousands of boys in school at this critical time when so many drop out of our small, weak schools.

Consolidation is a forward-looking movement based upon the principle of cooperation of all concerned in the enterprise. There are two important lessons that most farmers still have to learn—first, to cooperate with each other as producers, and, second, to cooperate with their immediate neighbors in their trading center. Consolidation is the farmer's best lesson in cooperation thus far. Some 15,000 or 16,000 consolidated schools in all parts of the United States testify to the success of the movement to get farmers to work together in the education of their children. Succeeding in this, it is not so difficult to get them to cooperate in many other activities closely related to, or that may be made to grow out of, a good consolidated school, such as school and community athletic, recreation and health programs, and a great variety of wholesome social contacts made possible through well directed school activities. Local vocational and economic problems may well be discussed at the schoolhouse with the school board, the superintendent, and the teachers of vocational agriculture and home making, present with the farmers and such outside specialists as may be secured to aid in the solution of local problems. The consolidated school is the best agency yet devised for adult education to improve farm and home practices in evening classes in charge of the local vocational teachers and such outside assistance as can be secured to assist them.

The consolidated school district may also be the voting precinct, and this would seem to be a good thing. It gives the rural group an opportunity to discuss local, county, and state candidates and issues and gives them some chance at least to work and vote for their own interests. It promotes discussion, encourages the people to take new interest in political and civic affairs, and promotes community solidarity.

The same area and the same group of people that make an efficient unit for one strong consolidated school, will for exactly the same reasons make an equally good unit for one strong community church whose creed is the essence of the Golden Rule instead of some half dozen or more weak and struggling and starving denominational efforts that make but a feeble appeal to a few of the faithful who still try to live on the husks of the gospel of real brotherhood.

So, it is our opinion that the consolidated school district when wisely laid out and when it includes a national geographic area and all of the people included within it, forms the best neighborhood and community unit yet devised.

DEMOCRATIC ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION OF SCHOOLS

W. J. AVERY, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS OF RAPIDES PARISH
ALEXANDRIA, LA.

As in other states, the basic principles of the public school system of Louisiana are found in the state constitution and in legislative acts. Much of authority, however, is vested directly in the state board of education, one member elected from each of the eight congressional districts, two at each two-year interval, for terms of eight years, and three appointed by the Governor for four-year terms. Further and more immediate authority is vested in the parish school board which is the governing authority in all matters pertaining to the business or financial affairs of the schools of the parish (county). The members of the parish board are elected, one third at each two-year interval for terms of six years, the elections being held at congressional elections instead of at the time of the state primary and state general election in order to prevent political entanglements. The members of the parish boards are elected by wards, at least one member from each ward, more from the more populous wards. Other authority and duties are vested by law in the parish superintendent.

The parish superintendent is the executive officer of the parish school board. His qualifications are prescribed by the state board of education, and his duties to some extent by the same body. His term of office is four years, but he may be removed by the board from office for cause. Since the board is an overlapping one, not more than one third of the membership being new at any one time, the policies of the board and of the superintendent are usually harmonious and continuous, the result being that in most cases the superintendent is several times reelected. The superintendent must maintain his office at a point in the parish designated by the parish school board, usually at the courthouse, and shall keep his office open during the "usual office hours," except when visiting schools or attending to his duties elsewhere. As secretary of the school board, he is required to make quarterly reports upon the condition of the schools; make an annual report to the state superintendent of education and such other reports as the state superintendent may require; he must keep a record of all business transacted by the board and by himself as superintendent, secretary or treasurer; and must publish the minutes of the board meetings in the official journal of the board and must perform all other duties pertaining to the office as secretary of the board, such as preparing all papers and documents pertaining to the holding of elections to vote bond issues, taxes for building school houses and for the maintenance of schools, and all papers pertaining to the issuance and sale of bonds when voted.

As treasurer, he must receive and disburse all school funds and must account to the parish board and the state supervisor of public accounts for them.

In his capacity of superintendent, he must see that all teachers have the

proper certificates; appoint all principals and teachers, subject to the approval of the board, which may by a majority vote of the members present, reject any appointment, and by a majority vote of the entire membership of the board, appoint without the superintendent's nomination. The superintendent signs contracts with teachers (the president of the board signs all other contracts). He "shall visit as often as possible each school in the parish and shall exert his best endeavors in promoting the cause of public education; shall faithfully carry out the requirements of the state school laws and the rules and regulations made for the schools by the state board of education. While not enumerated in the laws, the duties and responsibilities of the parish superintendent are varied and numerous. Some of them are: Appoint and contract with teachers; appoint and contract with transfer drivers and janitors, determining their salaries; keep the school buildings and equipment in repair; purchase and distribute all equipment, fuel, school supplies, laboratory equipment, library books. In other words, he is the business manager for the school board, its secretary and treasurer and the superintendent of the schools, having final authority in cases of discipline. He helps determine the kinds of school buildings to be constructed and has general supervision over their construction, very often not by authority directly placed in him, but by the very nature of his position. In practically all cases his authority is under that of the parish board, but since the board does not as a rule have frequent meetings nor for long sessions usually, the board determines upon general policies or plans and then relies upon the superintendent for results. Even though this assistance in securing funds (bonds or building taxes) for constructing school buildings and for the maintenance of schools is very necessary, the most valuable service that the superintendent can render is in the selection, appointment, and supervision of the teachers. In Louisiana, as already stated, all teachers are appointed by the superintendent subject to the approval of the board and on him must rest that responsibility. In most cases, I presume, the board ratifies his appointments without question and in many instances fails to pass upon the matter at all. In my own parish, Rapides, it is understood that the president of the board, the member or members of the board from each ward and the superintendent, compose a committee for the appointment of teachers in the ward concerned so that the board may not need to concern itself as a whole about this matter. The conclusion of this committee concerning an appointment is considered the conclusion of the board. The committee, at least the member or members of the board in the ward in which it is to be made, discuss the appointment of the principal of the most important school, particularly the principal of a high school and occasionally it is necessary to discuss the reappointment of a teacher. As a matter of practice, all other appointments are in most cases made by the superintendent without consulting anybody. The responsibility for the proper organization and successful operation of the schools is his and he is rather free and unhampered in his activities. Much of his authority and responsibility depend upon the confidence he enjoys with his board.

Since the board meets only a few times each year, the superintendent must very often take upon himself full responsibility. In all cases, however, the president is by law his adviser. The practices of the school board and superintendent vary in detail. The tone of this paper, therefore, necessarily conforms in a large measure to the practices and policies followed in Rapides parish, particularly from this point on.

Supervision—Supervision of the schools is accomplished along several lines about as follows:

I. Prior to the opening of the schools in September the superintendent holds a conference, usually one evening, with the principals of the twelve large schools of the parish—one high school, four large elementary schools and seven combined high and elementary schools. At this conference the discussions are entirely informal, general policies usually being given the greater attention. Since these principals are employed by the calendar year, their programs for the year have already been worked out and approved. But such things as the testing program, admissions, classification, grading, promotions, keeping of records, transfers of pupils, transportation of pupils, making of regular and special reports, modifications of the courses of study, receive attention. These are conferences, not meetings for giving directions, though that feature has its place.

II. One day before schools open these same principals and their assistant teachers meet with the superintendent and assistant superintendent to discuss the subjects taught in the several grades of the schools, the methods of teaching, giving and administering tests and measurements, the duties, responsibilities, and authority of the principals, the duties, responsibilities and authority of the teachers. This conference is usually subdivided for a part of the day into two groups (a) high school teachers, (b) elementary grade teachers. Generally one or two study subjects in each group receive special attention. It may be reading or arithmetic, spelling or writing in the group of teachers of elementary grades, and English or mathematics, foreign language or science in the high school group. One or two outside speakers, usually from the state department of education, are perhaps present by invitation, each formally presenting some one or more subjects. The major part of the discussions are as a rule by the teachers, principals and assistant superintendent. It is always understood that everybody present is invited to take a liberal part.

III. Another day, the superintendent, the assistant superintendent, and probably a representative of the state department of education meet with the teachers of the rural schools. The teacher turnover is greatest in this group, thus necessitating something similar to a reorganization each year. Here more detailed and specific instructions and information must be given. Much detailed information must be given concerning the opening day program; admission, grading, promotion, transfer of pupils; keeping of records; making monthly and annual reports; care of school buildings and equipment; building up, use and care of libraries; relations of teachers to pupils, parents, the communities in general; their relations to the superintendent and his assistant. This is the one time that the superintendent and the assistant superintendent have to make the teachers feel that when either visits a teacher in his school it is not for the purpose of inspection and adverse criticism, but that all visits are for the purpose of finding what the actual conditions in the school are and to give, if necessary, sympathetic advice and assistance. Methods of teaching, of giving and using tests and measurements are discussed. The results of the day are that teachers have a fairly good understanding of the whole situation and of their duties, responsibilities, rights, and authority.

IV. Conferences with the principals of the larger schools are held as occasion demands and time permits throughout the year, sometimes with all of them and

at other times with groups. Specific situations or conditions receive attention at these conferences. It seems impossible to find time to hold enough of these conferences.

V. Regional institutes or conferences are held during the year as often as possible. These groups are sometimes of teachers of strictly rural schools; at other times the groups are of elementary teachers of the high-elementary schools, combinations of the two, including the principals, or of high school teachers. At such conferences or institutes a part of the program is formal but there is always opportunity for free discussion.

Often a teacher of superior ability is selected to discuss methods of instruction, another to teach a demonstration lesson. Often, however, the teacher selected is young and inexperienced, with not much scholarship, one who knows little of methods. He is thereby required to give considerable work to the preparation of his lesson. He necessarily secures much help, but he likewise gains much information and something of the technic of teaching that will be of value to him during the remainder of the year. Once a teacher actually writes a good lesson plan and teaches a lesson better than ever before, he has more self-confidence and has before him a higher standard of excellence. Some of our teachers who only a few years ago had little scholarship, no experience, and only indistinct ideas of method can and do now do excellent teaching. The regional meetings of small groups of teachers held on Saturday permit teachers to become rather well acquainted with one another, especially since they take their dinners and spend the day. This situation permits an ease and freedom that more formal meetings prohibit. Two or three such meetings are often held during each month of the fall and spring but since there is considerable other work to be done, the schedule is often broken into, especially by other meetings and by holidays during the winter season. It may take the entire year for enough regional meetings to be held to reach every part of the parish, but during that time some of the teachers have been able to attend more than one meeting. These meetings are held by the assistant superintendent of schools, sometimes visited in the afternoon by the superintendent. This sort of meeting has many advantages, such as freedom of discussion, seeing demonstration lessons, giving demonstration lessons, sometimes by teachers outside the group, by the assistant superintendent and occasionally by a state department of education representative.

VI. As soon in the fall as the schools are well under way, the principals send to the office copies of all daily schedules. These are checked and filed in a book if satisfactorily made. If not, they are sent back to the teachers with suggestions for improvement and as soon as they are in acceptable form a complete office file is made. These schedules are expected to be posted in all classrooms of the parish and are for the guidance of the visiting superintendent or assistant superintendent who expects to find each teacher following his schedule; also as soon as possible after the opening of the schools the assistant superintendent begins to visit the schools of the parish, particularly the rural schools. He makes the first round of visits as rapidly as possible, staying long enough, however, in each room to form a fairly accurate idea concerning the ability of the teacher to govern his school or room and to do his teaching correctly. Before leaving the school, it is customary to confer with the teacher or teachers about the course of study, the classification of the pupils, the preparation of the teacher, his methods, the arrangement of the daily schedule and any other matters that may be considered vital. It is not customary to try to point out all of the defects in the school at one time, but to help in some way to remedy the most glaring ones, having to do with essentials rather than minor details. In all cases, the visitor to the school, whether the superintendent or the assistant superintendent—generally the latter—makes notes in order that he may make a full report after returning to the office, which report is made in duplicate, the original filed in a book kept for that purpose and a carbon copy sent to the teacher. In the twelve large

schools the principals attend to the classroom supervision, thus permitting the assistant superintendent to give practically all of his time to the rural schools. Since it is not possible for one person to visit more than one or two schools in one day, it takes a considerable time, especially considering interruptions, for one person to make a round of all of the rural schools of the parish. As soon as the first visit is over, however, a second round is undertaken, not necessarily in the order of the first, as it is almost impossible to make and adhere to a schedule of visits. It is necessary to do otherwise, especially since the teachers in some of the schools are fairly well trained and can be depended upon to follow advice, instructions and suggestions. In other schools the teachers have little scholarship, know very little of methods and therefore need more supervisory attention. The afternoon visits probably prove to be of more value to the teachers since there is more time after school hours for conference.

The written report has several distinct values:

1. The teacher has in permanent form a statement of observations, criticisms, suggestions, and advice of the visitor. There is nothing hazy about it.
2. The assistant superintendent, who is the supervisor, does not have to depend upon his memory concerning previous observations.
3. It gives the superintendent an opportunity to keep in touch with the situation throughout the entire parish.

Succeeding reports usually show progressive improvement on the part of the teacher. If there is no improvement, the matter may be forcibly called to the attention of the teacher. Every teacher is given a real chance to improve while in service. Suggestions designed to be of assistance to him are given from time to time either orally or in written form, generally in both, the suggestions being given in a spirit of sympathy and cooperation and in this spirit they are usually accepted by the teacher.

Circular letters, lesson plans, etc.: suggestions, outlines, information, lesson plans, methods of teaching or study, are used somewhat freely. Some of the lesson plans are written by young teachers after having had some training in service. Most of them are written by older, well trained, and experienced teachers. Credit is always given to the teacher whose outline of lesson plan is used and passed on. Occasionally stenographic reports of lessons taught are made and distributed. These circular letters, lesson plans, stenographic reports, etc., secured from any source obtainable, are of value to the most of the teachers, particularly those with little scholarship and experience.

DEMOCRATIC ADMINISTRATION—HOW ACHIEVED

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Administration of schools has to do with securing suitable laws for advancement of a school system, ordering and defining policies which are permitted within legal limits, and securing funds for the effective execution of policies of a system of schools.

Our problem for consideration is—How may this inclusive type of administration be realized in a democratic rather than an autocratic way?

Democracy in no sense precludes worthwhile leaders whether it pertains to the several activities of a state, city, nation, or to a system of

schools. According to records, Athens, which is reputed to have been one of the most thoroughly democratic of all nations, did not show contempt for its leaders even though it may have ostracized one occasionally.

Hence, the first requisite for the realization of democratic administration is—a leader as state superintendent (or by whatever official title he may be known), with professional and personal equipment to influence both the law-making and the school levying bodies, that satisfactory school laws may be secured and funds provided for the execution of policies; a leader with judgment to interpret needs as they exist and with vision to shape administrative policies to meet these needs; a leader with sufficient courage to fight for his policies, if combat be a necessity, in order to safeguard or to execute them; a leader with tact and a readiness to employ diplomacy when an administrative end will be served without the violation of any principle, in short, a real leader. Democracy in administration, I think, awaits such an official.

Second—Given the leader, he should have the authority to nominate for election all members of the state department of education. In this department there will be, of course, his professional assistants who serve as supervisors or directors, as the case may be of respective divisions of work, high schools, elementary schools negro schools, compulsory attendance, special subjects, etc. The necessity for this would seem to be obvious.

It is a physical impossibility for any leader to direct in person every phase of his administration, hence he must depend somewhat on his professional assistants. The qualification, the industry, the loyalty, of these will determine very largely the success or failure of the superintendent's policies. As he is charged with leadership, he should be obliged to have no one in his department who will fail to follow in every detail his leadership.

Third—While the state superintendent is charged with initiating policies, he can beget democracy in his own department by requesting every supervisor or director of a division of work to submit for discussion of the entire department what objectives seem worthwhile to be undertaken during a specific period. These may be modified, but none of them should be discarded unless the group led by the superintendent should decide them to be unattainable or impracticable for the time at hand.

The effect of this scheme is that every member of the department realizes that when he works during a period he is not making an effort to realize just anybody's, or even the department's objectives, but his own objectives; and if he has any ambition at all to have his work honestly appraised, he will do his best to bring his undertakings to a successful conclusion.

Fourth—While the state superintendent may have certain prescribed authority throughout the state, yet democratic administration will be furthered if he never insists that his policy shall be the state's policy, regardless. There are the heads of smaller units in the state as county superintendents, superintendents of a town, a township, or small city. These officials should be summoned for conference once or twice a year. They should be requested to suggest policies for discussion, salary scale, provisions for

supervision as such, bases for certification, etc. Such items that affect the system of an entire commonwealth should be mulled over by such a group before being put forward either for legislative enactment or for execution in the several subdivisions of a state's system, for then they represent the policy of the entire group and not the policy of one individual only. Furthermore, such a procedure prevents any official of the system from apologizing for the policy with respect to his individual unit of administration and charging up to the discredit of the state department every policy which may not be well understood and perhaps unpopular in his particular section.

Fifth—Every member of the state department of education should do a similar thing with those officials in the several units of the state with whom he works. To be specific—The high school supervisors should have frequent conferences with principals of high schools on administrative matters pertaining to their institutions. The supervisors of elementary schools should have group conferences of county supervisors at which the group, not the state supervisor, sets up goals to be attained within a definite period and procedures mapped out for the realization of the objectives. From time to time, there should be conferences for checking progress or lack of it. The supervisor of colored schools should do something of the same kind with the county supervisors with whom he works. The director of compulsory attendance should summon the county attendance officers for conference at which ways and means are devised for a more-and-more effective enforcement of a state compulsory attendance law.

Such a procedure as described above places the responsibility for the carrying out of policies upon all of a group engaged in the particular line of work. Members of the group have a personal, as well as a professional obligation to put over policies because they have had a share in formulating them.

Sixth—Visits to the several units of a state by members of the state department should rarely be made for inspectional purposes only but should be made with the primary purpose of extending aid to the county authorities in putting over policies whether they be purely administrative or purely supervisory. Visits made in a helpful and advisory spirit will never be resented, but will be welcomed by the county officials. If made in a dictatorial, fault-finding spirit, this phase of administration is autocratic, not democratic, and too soon the several units of a state system will begin to murmur about lack of democracy on the part of the state department of education.

Seventh—One important piece of administrative work is the getting of school laws enacted to serve as a safeguard for policies. In addition, administration is concerned with securing money with which these policies, buttressed by statute, may be made dynamic.

The legislative, as well as the tax-levying body, is amenable to public opinion. Then, it would seem that the spirit of democracy may be realized in this regard by administration when it arouses masses of people in favor of a particular bill which has to do with school legislation or a levy suffi-

cient to care for the needs of schools. This attitude of the masses, translated into action, becomes as public opinion a potent influence with both the legislative and the tax-levying body.

The non-democratic procedure would be for administrative officials to say—"This thing is needed. We must have it. The people do not know what they need, etc."

Some of the means at our disposal for reaching masses of people are parent-teacher association, closing exercises and commencements of schools, farmers' picnics, the grange, women's clubs, chambers of commerce, Rotary, Kiwanis, Lions' clubs. These may be employed as an aid in realizing democracy in this phase of administration.

May I conclude by saying that such procedures as I have described are those which are carried out by the state department of education of Maryland, which has the good fortune of having at its head a real leader, in the person of its State Superintendent of Schools. One with a vision, one who does not hesitate to confer with and request policies from his own staff as well as from the heads of the several units in the state, one who holds himself primarily responsible for the execution of all policies after they have been agreed upon. And further, the state is fortunate in having a thoroughly professional group of county superintendents, county supervisors—white and colored—who respond with the finest sort of spirit to the type of democratic leadership as practiced by the state superintendent.

DEMOCRATIC ADMINISTRATION OF SCHOOLS—HOW IT MAY BE REALIZED

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INDIANAPOLIS, IND.

I was told that I was to be one of three to discuss this subject. I am supposed to be from the outside, yet my coming from the outside has been so recent it is impossible not to have an inside viewpoint.

In discussing a democratic school administration, it is necessary to place a limit on the field which opens for our consideration. The word "democratic," I feel, has been somewhat overworked recently. It has come to be looked upon as an end to be sought, when in reality it should be considered a means to an end. In the political world, we say all powers spring from the people and this is correct. It is when the same principle is applied to other organizations that trouble arises. Democracy implies self-government and self-government is only possible when the individuals which compose the government have reached a standard where intelligent cooperation is possible; where they submit peaceably their own interests to the will of the majority. To do this, selfish interests and little interests must give way to the larger. To state it differently, law which represents the majority will, is supreme to the will of the individual. That community organization, individual, or nation has reached the state where a democratic government is possible when individual rights gives way to universal rights.

We have some interesting illustrations just now of governments failing in the supreme crisis. The capacity of different nations for self-government is being tested. The test is coming in their capacity to meet a great moral or economic crisis. Today we see self-government failing in Europe with a dictator directing the governments of Spain, Italy, and Greece; and almost daily we are expecting a like fate to befall the great nation of France. Our own capacity is being tested in the present discussion and the enforcement of the 18th Amendment.

With this idea of democracy before us, I am constrained to the opinion that in the school democracy is an impossibility. There is in the subject under discussion "How to Make Our Schools Efficient," an implied fault that today our schools are not efficient. This statement I would challenge; further, "Yet Keep Them Democratic," implies democratic administration is desirable and that we now have it, or else why attempt to keep it? It would appear that we have a democratic administration and that our schools are not efficient.

This would lead us to believe that democracy is not conducive to efficiency, which is more nearly the truth.

Therefore, what I have to say to you would be more along the line of proper results in a system which is a benevolent despotism—where the individuals comprising the organization have in mind not suppression of individuals, but development.

There are certain evils which every organization must face. In passing through a manufacturing plant where the buildings are good, machinery in place, order prevails and everything appears busy, one may expect that the business is prosperous. If, however, the true standing is to be found, we must look beneath the outside; within the books we must see the cost of the product, overhead expenses, the sales, and the profits.

If we observe a school system, we may check over uptodate buildings and they are good; we may delve into intricate masses of statistics that may be good; a large percent of the faculty have college degrees and it is well; the organization runs smoothly; reports are on time and that is all fine. But we can have all this and yet not have efficiency.

A small executive can gather statistics, read reports, maintain order, but it takes more to go beyond the system and permit the human element to express itself. Nature abhors uniformity in organized being. The scientist tells us that no two blades of grass are alike, that no two ears of corn are identical, that no two hairs upon our head are alike in every particular and, certainly, no human beings conform in every particular.

Then in maintaining our organization, we must not expect conformity in every particular, but allow individuality to express itself.

Much rests upon the type of the executive. He must clearly understand the purposes of school and school organization. He must be very much human to see beyond the records, forms, and standards and there find the child. Now in the relationship between the administering power and the

teacher, he must allow that freedom of expression to the teacher for proper administration of the school.

There is another quality which the successful administrator must possess. He must realize that the system does not exist for himself. Someone has said that if you would get along with people, get interested in their problems, rather than trying to interest them in your problems. So the successful administrator who would maintain a democratic administration must interest himself in the human interests of the teachers of the community and the children. It has been my experience, also, that one of the greatest reasons for the development of the dictatorial school system where the individuality of the teacher has been subverted and all the initiative is destroyed has come from false standards in qualifications; namely, license, credits, and degrees. I say they are faults for the reason that no amount of training in itself can develop a true teacher; nor can all the degrees from the universities in themselves create a successful administrator. But so long as we have incapable or low standard hiring officials, false standards for teachers' qualifications must continue.

In my early experience as a teacher, soon after my graduation from college, it was my belief that if one made himself successful that that would be the best argument for being hired to a better position. I have since revised those early idealistic views, revised them because of practical experience. I learned that if an individual hired himself to the average school official, the thing that counts is not ability, but degrees.

A school man has something for sale. It may be genuine ability of a high order, but if it is not wrapped in a beautiful package with tinsel cord, it will remain upon the shelf; dust will settle upon it, while an inferior brand of goods properly decorated will become the best seller.

My solution to the problem involved of maintaining efficiency and democracy in the school is to eradicate false standards of qualifications and substitute the human element; raise the standard of hiring officials to the place where they know the qualifications a teacher should possess; find that administrator who is big enough and human enough to see beyond system, cost and teacher, the child.

THE STATE AND THE RURAL SCHOOL

JOHN H. LOGAN, STATE COMMISSION OF EDUCATION, TRENTON, N. J.

The first and most important problem in connection with the state's relation to the rural schools is that of securing teachers. The state must train the ablest and best of its youth which can be brought into the teaching profession. To this end it should be tireless in the activity of persuading citizens that every classroom in city, town, and rural community should have a well trained teacher. Every teacher should have at least two years in the normal school, or the equivalent of this, in addition to four years of standard high school work. This should be the rule. Of course, here and

there is to be found an excellent teacher who has never been inside of a normal school or a college. A few good military leaders never attended a training school, but they are the exception.

This makes it necessary for the state to supply sufficient normal school facilities and to see to it that the normal schools are performing their function.

While it is within the authority of the state to prescribe the qualifications for certification, it is not yet practically possible to secure for all the schools teachers who meet the requirements that are desired. Some teachers still have to be employed who have had much less than two years of normal training. In New Jersey we admit to the profession a limited number who have had only one summer-school session of special training. They receive a limited license which may be made permanent after experience and further training. We are fully aware of how bad this practice is and steps are being taken to require in the very near future at least twice the training now required for beginners. It is our hope that by 1930, no one can begin teaching in New Jersey with less than two years of normal-school training following four years of high school work. Such a rule is now being considered by the state board of examiners and it seems probable that a rule to that effect would successfully function. It is our plan to make an extensive survey of teacher training and teacher needs of the state during this school year, and if the study will justify a rule to the effect of requiring normal school graduation for entrance to the profession by 1930, I shall strongly urge its adoption.

It is clearly the duty of the state to cooperate with the poorer and less attractive communities in working out a plan that will attract normal graduates to these places and keep them there until they have had time to accomplish something. Better housing, with attractive surroundings, and a better scale of pay would help to solve the problem. Why shouldn't the rural school have as good a teacher as the city or the private school? Is it less important to educate the country boys and girls? Have city children more brains and more character than rural children?

The greatest obstacles to improvement in rural conditions are the natural conservatism of the population and the absence of wealth. In many places the people cannot understand why their local girls who have a little learning, but practically no training, should not teach in the local school. In some cases they are downright obstinate on this point. When one of these girls has the ambition—and the other essentials—to go to the normal school for two years or longer, she can seldom be persuaded to return to the rural community to work. She can get better pay in the town or city, where there are better opportunities. Of course, we cannot blame her. It is a "job" with her and she seeks the best job to which her training will admit her. The rural school has to get along without her. It is true that there are many normal graduates without employment, but they do not always seek employment where they are most needed.

The outstanding and principal fact is that, notwithstanding state aid of one sort or another, the rural community has far inferior educational opportunities to those of the towns and cities and there is no way to cure this except by a large amount of financial assistance. Everything else is merely making the best of a situation which no one seems to be willing to cure in the only way in which it can be cured. The rich community pays for and gets very much that cannot be had in the rural place. I am not thinking so much of the one-room school, which under favorable conditions has compensations; nor of the relatively poorer type of building, for a good school can be conducted in a comparatively inexpensive building. We could have as good schools in the country district as there are in the city, if we had any way of paying for them. And they need not cost nearly so much as they cost in the city. I am a believer in the rural school, in the learning and the inspiration the children get. There is no excuse for the great difference which too often exists between the rural school and the city school.

One of the things I would like to see is more men in the rural schools. Not that there are too many men in the city elementary schools, but it is worse in the country district. The number of women teachers as compared with the number of men teachers is a real and increasing peril, it seems to me. There seems to be no natural reason why only girls can be secured to do this big and important work. I believe in the masculine hand and the masculine mind in the elementary school. All of us are grateful to the women who taught us in childhood, but some of us are also grateful that we had some men for our teachers. If I were a member of a rural school board I would insist upon having a male teacher now and then. I would even offer special inducements in order to get a man. In New Jersey, we are trying to attract men to the normal schools. All of our normal schools have a few men and this fall one school will have nearly a hundred men.

In New Jersey we require at present about 2200 new teachers every year for our elementary schools. The normal schools of the state give us about 1200 graduates and we get about 500 or 600 teachers from neighboring states. This leaves about 500 teachers entering the profession without complete normal training. Nevertheless, I believe the demand could be met with normal graduates if conditions were as they should be and can be made to be.

There are about 1500 teachers—some 8 percent of the elementary teachers of the state—under the supervision of helping teachers, who are appointed by the commissioner of education and who work in close cooperation with the county superintendents and with the assistant commissioner for elementary education. These helping teachers are capable and experienced supervisors, and consequently it is very fortunate that 70 percent of the teachers, who enter the service with the minimum special training, work under their supervision. Every rural school in New Jersey which

does not have its own supervising principal is under the direction of a helping teacher.

There are thirty-six of these helping teachers in eighteen of the twenty-one counties of the state. They vary from one to four in each county, according to the rural school population. The state allows \$500 per year for traveling expenses, enabling the helping teachers to devote the major part of their time to actual classroom supervision.

They have salaries ranging from \$2000 to \$2850, with an allowance of \$500 for expenses. The average pay during the present year is \$2700, but most of them receive \$2850, and we have set the maximum at \$3000 for the present.

This system has done much to improve rural education in New Jersey and to raise the actual standard of work done in rural schools. With all of the various administrative duties which devolve upon the county superintendent, it is obvious that that officer would do very little actual supervising. The helping teachers bring to the schools the point of view of people who are thoroughly acquainted with rural school conditions. All of them have had excellent training and have taught in rural schools themselves. Their program of supervision is carried on by means of classroom visitation, demonstrations, organization, and promotion of club work, group and individual conferences, administration of intelligence and accomplishment tests, adaptation of the course of study, and so on.

What makes their task particularly difficult is the amount of time which has to be given to the initial training of the inexperienced, untrained beginners. These beginners come to the rural schools having had only one summer of state summer school work. The helping teachers must take them and attempt to train them in a knowledge of the course of study and in desirable technics and attitudes. Sometimes 50 percent of a helping teacher's staff are new to the work. Then in a year or two, as soon as these teachers acquire some ability, they go to larger schools or resign, and the helping teacher has his work to do over again.

The complex organization of present-day schools and the demands of society for an efficient output has made it imperative to provide supervision and leadership for the classroom teacher. It should be apparent that this kind of activity is more necessary in the rural schools, where teachers are not trained, than for city schools, where on the whole, teachers have received adequate training. It is usually impossible for rural communities to provide supervision because of the financial difficulties involved. The state should, therefore, assume this responsibility and provide adequate supervision for the teachers in the rural schools of the state, in order to bring these schools up to proper level and to equalize to some extent the educational opportunities of the children in the rural and city districts.

As special state aid to the rural counties our law provides that 10 percent, less certain deductions, which amount to about 1.5 percent of the thirteen million dollar state school tax, shall be apportioned among the counties in the discretion of the state Board of Education. This means that over

one million dollars is placed in the hands of the state Board of Education to be used for the equalization of educational opportunity in the state. Ten of the twenty-one counties in New Jersey were assisted last year with varying amounts, in accordance with their respective needs, to the extent of nearly one half million dollars. One percent of the total state school tax, or one tenth of the reserve fund, amounting to about \$135,000, is placed in the hands of the Commissioner of Education who may apportion it direct to the districts which have low ratables in proportion to their school needs. This emergency fund was created by the legislature for the relief of a few very needy districts, and, so far, it has not found any extensive use, most of it going back into the reserve fund of 10 percent of the school tax, because not apportioned by the commissioner. We are trying to work out a plan by which the entire amount may be used, but on condition that certain improvements in teaching and teaching equipment be made by districts receiving assistance.

Rural high schools—Under the plan of consolidation provided in our school code two or more districts may combine in order to provide better schools than single districts can afford. Consolidation is practicable in sparsely populated sections where large areas provide a sufficient number of children to make a satisfactory school. We are not committed to consolidation as necessary in all cases for good schools, but much consolidation has been made. In one county in the central part of the state where there were fifty-five one-room rural schools less than ten years ago, there are now only two. Consolidation has not gone nearly so far in other parts of the state, but each year the number of one-room schools decreases.

Consolidation is not sufficiently inclusive to make districts large enough to support a high school, and the consolidation plan of the state is of no direct aid to secondary education. The law authorizes two or more districts to appoint a board composed of members selected from the district boards, to provide a central high school. However, practical or imaginary difficulties are always in the way, so that no use has been made of this power and we have no rural consolidated high schools. Districts which cannot support a high school send their pupils to a neighboring high school, paying tuition, which usually does not exceed the cost of the service. Since the district having the high school generally has more ratables than the districts which do not have high schools, and since a district maintaining a high school receives subsidies and attendance allowances from the state, the sending districts have to be reimbursed for a portion of the tuition charges. To meet this necessity, the county pays out of moneys apportioned by the state \$40 towards the tuition of each pupil transported to another district and in addition three fourths of the cost of transportation. The state department of public instruction, through its approval function, insists that pupils be transported to neighboring high schools where this is feasible, instead of being kept in small and inefficient district high schools. The result of this policy is seen from the following table:

DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOLS ON A SCALE OF ENROLMENT

<i>Enrolment</i>	<i>Number of Schools</i>			
4000-5000	1			
3000-4000	1			
2000-3000	5			
1000-2000	13			
900-1000	2			
800-900	3			
700-800	10			
600-700	3			
500-600	4			
400-500	14			
300-400	17			
200-300	23			
100-200	32 (4 yr.)	1 (3 yr.)	1 (2 yr.)	
0-100	13 (4 yr.)	6 (3 yr.)	4 (2 yr.)	2 (1 yr.)
Total	155			

Fifty percent of the high school pupils of New Jersey are enroled in schools of over 1000 pupils each.

Only 7 percent of the high school pupils of New Jersey are in schools having under 200 in attendance.

Only 1 percent of the pupils are enroled in schools below 100 pupils, and that percent is too large.

THE COUNTY AND THE RURAL SCHOOL

JOHN C. LOCKHART, SUPERINTENDENT WAKE COUNTY SCHOOLS,
RALEIGH, N. C.

Any program of education for country boys and girls is inadequate which does not provide for them opportunities approximately equal to those provided for city children. Certain conditions in the cities and towns have been favorable to the development of school systems which offer advantages superior to those which the rural schools provide. These superior advantages are due to: (1) larger schools which favor specialization on the part of teachers; (2) longer school terms; (3) better prepared teachers; (4) better buildings and equipment; (5) more adequate financial support. In order to improve the opportunities offered rural children it is necessary that these factors be made the bases of the plan for improvement. How can this be done?

The answer is to be found in making the county the unit of support and organization. For example, the question of how large an area is to be served by one school must be answered, not in terms of district lines established a quarter or half century ago, but in terms of the needs of boys and girls of today. The school unit must be large enough to provide the conditions which have made possible the development of adequate city schools. Such school units can be provided for most advantageously by a county-wide plan of school organization and consolidation as distinguished from the small district type of organization.

The responsibility for working out and putting into effect a county-wide plan of school organization should rest with the county board of education in the same way that the responsibility of organizing city schools rests with city boards of education. This is the principle underlying the reorganization of the schools of Wake county. In short, it is our purpose to put into effect a county-wide plan which will give to the rural boys and girls modern educational advantages under modern conditions.

THE TEACHERS COLLEGE AND THE RURAL SCHOOL

EUGENE FAIR, PRESIDENT, NORTHEASTERN MISSOURI STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, KIRKSVILLE, MO.

If any of the education institutions of the United States have "a charge to keep" in relation to rural schools it is the teachers college. Teachers colleges have realized that they have such a charge and have sympathetically, in most cases, tried to work out the problem.

In the enthusiasm of working out a problem and doing it as quickly as possible errors have been made, but some very definite things have been found out. These findings should be known and made use of by all the teachers colleges.

It may not be amiss to point out the more important of these findings. In the first place, there must be a thorough going acquaintanceship with people as individuals and communities. One of the best illustrations is seen in the work of the state teachers college at Hays, Kansas, under the presidency of W. A. Lewis and the leadership in rural education of C. E. Rarick. Mr. Rarick's time is largely free from classroom responsibilities on the campus. He takes time to know not only the school board members and teachers in the communities where he is working, but the influential citizens. He knows them in a way that one good neighbor knows another. He is careful to waive aside his personal conveniences and minister to his people at any time when they feel themselves in need of him.

This close acquaintanceship has led inevitably to a sympathetic understanding of each other. People of the community seek, care for, and pay attention to the rural leader in especially the varied school activities of the community. To meet the exacting demands upon him he must not only be a man of very wide information but he must be able to apply it to a given situation. It may be that the rural leader desires consolidation in a given community with all his heart and that he knows that there are votes enough to put it over, but he may also observe that the result of such a vote would be a divided community for a long time to come. Hence, his advice will be against consolidation for the time being, at least. Such advice is a fair illustration of a sympathetic understanding between the teachers college and the rural school.

Acquaintanceship and understanding naturally open up an opportunity for leadership on the part of the teachers colleges. Few, if any, would dispute the unquestioned good which the teachers colleges are doing in

this matter and the good which is being done for them. It was my pleasure to take a trip into the field recently with a rural school leader. He was asked to advise and help people on almost every conceivable matter. He was in fact in a similar position to one of our ministers abroad. You could see, however, that such contacts were the very breath of life to him personally and also the real, substantial background for his class work on the campus. Another rapidly developing rural leader has told me that his work in rural schools, which is that of a cooperating teacher, has caused him to reorganize entirely his courses in rural education. Before his contacts in the field, his class work was dry and insipid, now it is living and to his generalizations are attached concrete experiences which stir the imaginations of the students and cause them to wish to help better rural conditions.

Just now, too, there is no more important aspect of this leadership than that of heartening the rural communities and getting each one of them to have a firm belief in its capacity to have as good a school as any other. An "inferiority complex" is present in many rural communities who could do much more to help themselves than they are. Such communities need to turn their eyes toward the wonderful possibilities in boys and girls and to cultivate more dignity and self-respect.

Another thing found out is that, taking the United States as a whole, there must be in rural communities a larger unit for taxation and administration. Most of the one room rural schools should within a few years become a thing of the past. Hence, most of the constructive efforts of the teachers colleges in rural communities should be in connection with consolidated school plants.

Taking this position does not gainsay the fine influence which such schools as Porter rural school has been and will be. So long as we have the one room rural school, Porter and others may be used as models. Then again the spirit which such schools have engendered should be of untold value in the development of consolidated schools. Every teachers college should have at least one faculty member who understands thoroughly the history of rural education in the United States and who knows even more thoroughly, if possible, all phases of rural consolidated schools. If the college can bear the expense, it would be well to have this faculty member engaged primarily in research work. His knowledge of the people the college serves should be intimate and far reaching. It is equally important to have a faculty member who can interpret this information to the people. They need to be told in press, pulpit, individually, what is the best thing to do in a given community.

Furthermore, the teachers colleges have found that their work for rural schools is largely judged and should be by their products—the teachers who are sent into the rural communities—hence the need for a definite curriculum in the college for the rural teacher—one of scope, power, and dignity and one which cultivates versatility and resourcefulness; hence the need, too, to follow up the teachers sent out, cooperating with them, supervising them, and possibly above all, to keep going a pervading enthusiasm for and belief in rural people and their boys and girls.

It has also been definitely found out that each teachers college whose constituency is largely rural, must have enough laboratory schools to represent every typical phase of rural school work in the district or state which the college is serving. In other words, the college should demonstrate its spoken words so that all who come may see and learn. In these schools also experimentation and constant research should be going on.

Teachers colleges are finding out rather clearly that the improvement of teaching everywhere and especially in the rural schools is bottomed on the personal equation, so personal in fact that each college may have an excellent curriculum, expert research workers as teachers, very good demonstration schools, and still lack something which keeps each teacher in an attitude of desiring to do something just because he liked to do and not because he is duty bound. The cooperating library work is a good example of an undertaking to reach the personal equation. One reads a book not for credit, but because it makes one joyous. Joyousness becomes infectious.

With the above mentioned things found out and other information which will come, the teachers college and the rural schools may well press forward together in enthusiasm and good will. All that is done and will be done belongs to enthusiasm and good will because it belongs to youth.

HOW MAY RURAL EDUCATION MEET AMERICA'S CHALLENGE TO HER TEACHERS?

NANCY GRACE WRIGHT, WEST RIDGE SCHOOL, HIGHLAND PARK, ILL.

A big question and one worthy of our most careful thought and consideration before attempting to answer.

The greatest obstacle to any constructive progress in the rural school, is often due to the teacher's attitude. If the position is accepted, not as a matter of choice, but merely as a lead to something better, there is likely to be that feeling of martyrdom, which will unconsciously react detrimentally in the daily work. If we are to be truly successful, our concern need not be about what particular position we hold, but rather about what we are doing in that particular position. Consequently, the greatest requisite is that the teacher believes not only in himself, but in his work.

Many disadvantages are cited when rural school work is mentioned, but no place in the educational field of labor holds such wonderful opportunities of getting the influence of the school into the home. "Guide the home and you guide the nation, for America is built around the family and the home."

Therefore, if we as rural teachers, are willing to forget self in generous enthusiasm; to believe that our school can be the best school; our community the best community and to grasp every honorable opportunity to bring to our boys and girls experiences which shall produce for them sound bodies, clear minds, happy spirits, and worthy characters, surely rural education will meet America's challenge to her teachers.

*A PRINCIPAL OF A CONSOLIDATED SCHOOL ANSWERS
AMERICA'S CHALLENGE TO HER TEACHERS*

FLOYD C. FRETZ, SUPERVISING PRINCIPAL, UNIONVILLE JOINT
CONSOLIDATED SCHOOL, UNIONVILLE, PA.

Schools everywhere throughout this broad land of ours are charged with a definite responsibility, a sacred trust, which is the same in principle whether it be in the great metropolitan centers maintaining their large school buildings magnificently equipped or in the sparsely settled regions with their one-teacher schools supported by a very minimum amount of equipment. This responsibility is, as I see it, the challenge America makes to her teachers. Every citizen regardless as to where he may live has a right to expect that the school to which he is compelled to send his child will first of all develop within him power to deal effectively with social problems and, secondly, that he may be prepared for whatever vocational work his temperament and mentality will permit him to follow.

It is true that different schools must and do approach this problem in different ways. This morning we are therefore privileged to consider for a time how certain types of rural schools and organizations are handling this problem as it presents itself to them in the form of a challenge.

For my part I represent a joint consolidated and vocational school situated in the center of four townships, or school districts, out in the open country, without a town of any size within its borders, strictly an agricultural community. This community is dominated by the Friends, sometime known as Quakers, and always has been extremely conservative in all of its dealings. Prior to consolidation three years ago these districts maintained eighteen one-room, one two-room, and one four-room schools, nearly all of which were in a dilapidated condition. High-school facilities were available only to those who could afford to transport themselves to the nearest urban school. Finally these schools were closed and all children, both high and elementary, are now transported by busses owned and operated by the districts to the one central school. Here the first four grades are classified according to ability and are handled by teachers doing straight grade work. The fifth and sixth grades form a separate unit with all work completely departmentalized. The high school then is of six years' duration, a junior senior high school, with no breaking off point or line of demarcation anywhere between seventh and twelfth grades. In addition to this we have a vocational high school whereby all boys in grades 9 and 10 must spend half of each day on agricultural and other related work, while the girls in the same grades must spend a similar amount of time in home-making. In grades 11 and 12 an advanced course is offered in both departments for those who wish to elect it. Thereby we feel that we are meeting one phase of our challenge, in that all girls, many of whom sooner or later will become home makers, are given valuable instruction that will be of paramount importance to them when the time comes to exercise it. The boys who expect to discontinue their scholastic

training at the end of their high school career and begin their life's activity on the farm are definitely prepared for such work. In addition to these activities, however, we offer sufficient academic work so that pupils capable of doing college and other advanced work are enabled to enter such institutions without exams or conditions.

I have given you this brief outline of our school in order to impress upon you the fact that ours is a rural school dealing with typical rural children, and may I digress long enough to say that I believe that rural children should receive their elementary and high school education in the country where they are taught by teachers who understand and are in sympathy with rural life, rather than by compelling them, as is most frequently the case, to go to the more populous centers at a considerable expense and inconvenience to themselves to complete their secondary education where they are a minority group in a school that is organized for a group of children differing from them socially, psychologically, and temperamentally.

In the remaining portion of time allotted to me I shall outline for you, hastily and very briefly, a few of the things we are doing for our boys and girls in addition to the regular content work we find in all schools. In order that I may not be misunderstood let me say that I am not at all lukewarm on content subjects and the value of the same, but believe that the first challenge every school must meet is to see to it that more rather than less emphasis is placed on the content subjects. When we come to discuss these extra-curricular activities, I am thinking about something in addition to rather than in place of the regular routine work of the school. These activities as I see them mark the differentiation between the school of yesterday where the 3 R's were paramount and the school of today which should train boys and girls to live in a democracy by living in a democracy. This, my friends, is the first premise of such activities. The second premise I should like to establish is the fact that nearly all extra-curricular activities should grow out of curricular activities and should return to enrich them.

With these two thoughts in mind let us look at a few of these activities.

Music—We have employed as one of the members of our faculty a young man who is capable of teaching not only vocal but also instrumental music as well. I have believed for a long time that it is just as important to teach a child to sing providing that is possible, and, if he desires it, how to play some musical instrument, as it is to teach him Latin, algebra, and many other content subjects of the high school. Two years ago we decided to try out this scheme of music in our school; remembering that our community is a Quaker conservative one, however, we put the proposition up to the students, that we would give them absolutely free of charge class instruction in any orchestral or band instrument they would select providing they would procure their own instrument and would spend a reasonable amount of time in practice at home. Nearly 100 boys and girls expressed a desire immediately for this work but when they realized

the price of the instrument and talked it over with their parents, many of whom said "It can't be done," it finally narrowed down to about 30 boys and girls who appeared with their instruments ready to take up this work which for them was entirely new. You of course appreciate the fact that in urban schools many boys and girls have had private instruction in music, but here such training was practically negligible. I haven't time to relate the progress made by these people except to say that before the year was out they had taken part in several entertainments much to the surprise and pleasure of the patrons of the school. This year our instrumental classes doubled in size so that at the end of the year we had an orchestra and a band numbering over 60 pieces. Is it successful and worthwhile? Are we meeting America's challenge in this regard? My answer would be, ask any patron of our school and suggest that we do away with it.

A second element of our program that we are stressing is the matter of health. We believe we cannot have a healthy mind without a healthy body. We begin our consideration of this problem in the first grade and carry it through the high school. This year we made out our own course particularly adapted to our own requirements. This course has the following aims and objectives:

Aim: To cause such desirable changes in the habits, attitudes, and knowledge of the children that they conserve and improve their own health.

Objectives:

1. To establish habits of right living.
2. To maintain at all times a clean school environment.
3. To develop habits of wholesome recreation.
4. To cultivate enjoyment of physical health, satisfaction in the development of right personal habits, and a sense of responsibility for helping keep others well.

In addition to our program of hygiene we are also stressing physical education. Each teacher in the elementary school, both morning and afternoon, raises all windows for a few minutes and has a form of calisthenics suited to the particular grade. At recess time teachers all go to the play ground and supervise the play activities. Every child is required to take part in these activities unless for some reason his health will not warrant it.

Another problem I shall touch briefly is the matter of guidance. When one realizes how many mistakes are made by boys and girls in selecting their high school electives, and how many a little later drift into the vocations they are to follow with little realization whether they are fitted for such a vocation and what its future prospects are, then we can realize that a community has a right to challenge us to see to it that such information which is readily available is placed at the disposal of their children. In our school every boy and girl in the seventh and eighth grades are given such courses in educational and vocational guidance. These courses are intended to help these children make their proper selections in high school and to think about the vocation they will follow later in life.

There is, however, no choice or selection made at this time. In addition to this we secure during the high school career of each pupil definite information regarding himself, as to his habits, aptitudes, abilities, etc. This information is secured from the child himself, from his parents, and from his teachers. We then plan to consult with each child during his senior year, or earlier if required, to help him decide upon his proper vocation. This counseling will be done and conclusions arrived at through the above-mentioned information, his standing in school, and the results of the various tests that he may have taken.

The next activity that I should like to mention is that of clubs. There is one fact we have to face and that is that boys and girls will form clubs whether we want them to or not. Many of us can recall certain clubs we belonged to while in school whether we called them by that name or not. These clubs were unsupervised except for the natural leader of the group. If he stood for good, his club did likewise, but if he was interested in destruction or other things not so good his club was likewise. Today, however, realizing these facts, our community says to us: "Since these boys will form clubs whether we want them to or not, the only plausible solution is to replace the old gang by a modern supervised club such as the boy scout organization." This we have done in our school. We employ a teacher for 12 months in the year with the understanding that he will spend practically half of his time on scouting both during the regular school day, during the evening or Saturday, and during the summer vacation. There is, as I see it, no club more important to stimulate proper attitudes among boys than a carefully planned scout program. Merely to read the oath tells in a way what it stands for:

"On my honor I will do my best to do my duty to God and my Country and to obey the scout law; to keep myself physically strong, mentally awake, and morally straight; to help other people at all times."

If these facts are as true in your community as they are in mine, then I believe America again has the right to challenge us to see to it that some program is worked out through the schools for this improvement.

The various other clubs we have assist more in the way of providing means a little later for caring for leisure time. Few boys and girls, men and women go astray during their working hours or their sleeping hours; the time most serious is that when they haven't anything definite to do, commonly known as leisure time. Very few of us can refer back to our school days and find a solitary incident that prepared us for this important part of each day we have at our disposal. I am, however, thoroughly convinced that America has a right to demand of us that somewhere through our influence a better, more profitable and more wholesome leisure time may be at the disposal of the next generation.

Student participation in government is a part of the school that I shall have time to merely mention. First of all let me say that the hardest way to manage a school is through student participation, but in spite of the fact that it is harder to handle, it gets results in a democratic manner

and at the same time has an educational effect on the pupils participating. If we are training boys and girls to live in a democracy, then why shouldn't their school life be a democracy?

A feature of school work, especially rural school work, generally neglected is that pertaining to publicity, whether it be through the press or better still through the schools' publications, the newspaper and the magazine. Every community has a right to know what is being done at school and why certain things are done. Furthermore, it is to the advantage of the school to have this information circulated throughout the community, because when parents learn of actual conditions and how best to remedy them, generally speaking, they are willing to go more than half way in improving them.

The last activity that I shall have time to mention briefly is that of the home room.

When a child enters the high school he has just left an organization where one teacher has been more or less interested in him and the work he has accomplished. He then enters this larger organization with every teacher interested in him in as far as his own subject is concerned, but no one definitely interested or apparently so in all of his activities of the school. The home room is the one organization that fills this gap. In our school they meet daily for a 10-minute period and then once a week for a full period where a definite program is put across. The teacher remains in the background but is ever ready with a guiding hand to help the progress of the meeting. Programs were posted in each home room and from these as suggestions the weekly discussions were drawn.

In conclusion let me say that all of the above activities we are attempting to carry out in our own school at Unionville. We do this because we believe that in addition to the reasons given before it is the duty of the school to teach the child to do better the desirable things he will do anyway.

AMERICA'S CHALLENGE TO HER TEACHERS—A SUPERVISOR OF RURAL SCHOOLS ANSWERS

CORA PEARSON, SUPERVISOR OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, MONTGOMERY
COUNTY, MONTGOMERY, ALA.

For supervision to be worthwhile it must include both ideals and activities. In other words, the supervisor must have dreams and visions and at the same time must be able to help them come true. In his ideals are involved the growth of teachers, a high level of attainment on the part of the children, an effective and broadened organization of subject-matter, best procedure in instruction, and a desirable attitude toward the work from the standpoint of the school and the community. On the activity side, that of attaining these goals, it must be said that no particular road can be selected, and no infallible pattern of procedure

given. The supervisor's function is to help teachers plant their feet firmly on the principles which must underlie all good teaching. Then he may point the way, but not prescribe the manner.

The first thing to be considered in a supervising scheme is the selection of the right person for a leader. He should be possessed with that personality which at the same time inspires respect and manifests a sympathetic understanding. There should have been that close personal contact with schoolroom problems—in other words, that rich experience in classroom work which gives one a basis for judgment and decision, and enables him to project himself into a situation, understand its difficulties, and help the teacher to think through them. There should be that adaptability which makes him able to feel the thrill with those attaining the heights, and at the same time hold the hand of the one who is discouraged and afraid. Indeed he must be a student in the deepest sense, of books, of conditions, and of people.

Why a student of books? In the first place, he cannot be the intelligent leader which he should be unless he is continually drinking from the springs of educational thought. Neither McMurray's standards, nor Kilpatrick's purposeful act is a cure-all for our school ills, but surely an understanding of them makes one more able to think for himself. A knowledge of psychology gives an interpretative basis, on this one can stand for working out solutions of many problems. In the second place he should be able to lead those who are under his direction to sources of knowledge and help. Not every teacher can sit at the feet of Dewey, Kilpatrick, Thorndike, Bagley, and others who have thrown so much light on the teaching situation; but this light can be made to shine through their books into the teacher's work, thus revealing the deeper meanings and illuminating the path of procedure. Not very many teachers read seriously unless directed—this is mainly because of two things. The inexperienced teacher has a limited basis for interpretation, and most teachers are so absorbed in the details of everyday work that the mind craves a diversion when that is finished. On the other hand most teachers will read more if material which is pertinent and definite relative to their own problems is brought to them. An illustration is seen in the following: One big objective which has obtained throughout the time in which I have worked in Montgomery county has been that of improvement in the reading situation. The organization in the county was new when I began and was necessarily disjointed. While some attempts were made to get an upward trend in the subject, during the first year not much progress was made until the Thorndike-McCall reading test was given and graphs of results placed in each schoolroom. This brought teachers to a consciousness of needs and they began to say, "What can we do?" I had gathered all available material on the subject. They were directed to this, and it is needless for me to tell you that they read intelligently and that this reading influenced results materially. Good

reading on other subjects has resulted in the same way. Sometimes it has been found that a girl was merely following some pattern, and when this failed to work she would be lost. An instance of this kind was found in a young girl who had been teaching a year or two and had given very good satisfaction. However, the particular year of which I am speaking brought some problems different from the usual ones. I made some suggestions as to grouping and procedure with the different groups. I saw there were some questions in her mind so let her express them. She said, "I don't see how we can do that and finish the work. Will I have time for so many groups. What could a group do while I am working with others?" My main thought was to get her mind away from the subject-matter and on the children. I placed a copy of Scott's *Social Education* and Wilson's *Motivation of School Work* in her hands, and gave her certain passages in a copy of *Child Psychology* to read. I did not press her, but little by little I saw that some of the principles had taken root. One day much later when I was in the room, I said, "Well, you have found it! I could hardly have hoped to see so evident a change in work and atmosphere in this room." She said, "I know now that I must study the child first, and then the subject-matter. The whole thing means so much more to me." Another instance which comes to my mind is that of a young woman who had recently come into the county system, and so had missed one beginning program on reading. I sat in her room and listened to a recitation in which there was no life. The questions had nothing in them to provoke thought—in fact the whole thing was nothing more than memory work. I laid before her two situations, one in which the teacher was merely "hearing" a lesson, the other in which she is leading the children to think through situations, guided by live questioning and wise direction. I asked, "In which of these classes would your recitation be placed? She evaded by saying, "I know no other way to do it." After giving her some suggestions, I asked her to come to the office and that we would find something which would help her. On my next visit she said, "I want you to see me try the same kind of lesson again." I marveled at the difference between that and the former one. Many other instances could be given showing how the supervisor can function in this way.

Why a student of conditions? Can a physician hope for the best results unless he is a student at all times of both causes and results? Can a lawyer successfully plead his cause unless he knows not only the history of his case, but all connected circumstances? Just as truly, the supervisor must be able to diagnose the conditions which he may meet. In the first place, he should from his knowledge of standards acceptable in the educational world, know whether or not the physical situation is satisfactory; whether or not teachers are regarding the laws of health and sanitation; whether or not the work being done is merely the result of dictation on the part of

the teacher, or of that character which insures the growth of the child—in other words that the child is stimulated, but not forced, directed but not circumscribed. Every schoolroom is a different situation, and therefore brings its own distinct challenge to the supervisor. He must make it his business to study the situation as he finds it, and know how to meet the needs in such a way as to encourage and help. This brings to my mind a number of situations which illustrate the function of supervision in this respect. Last September a young girl just out of normal school was placed in charge of the fifth and sixth grades in a consolidated school. I soon saw that the children were running away with her, and that almost nothing was being accomplished. It was difficult for her to see that she was failing. This placed her continually on the defensive. I learned that a different approach was needed, so I talked to her about the advantages of team work at this age and asked her to be on the alert for some lead. This brought the desired results in the form of a school garden. It worked out from their studies in agriculture. It was a splendid illustration of purposeful activity. They selected the ground, went to the woods and got posts, and put up the wire themselves. Investigation was made as to what kind of fertilizer was needed, and this was purchased. The work was done entirely by the children. They sold sufficient vegetables not only to pay all expenses incurred, but to buy a beautiful picture for the walls of their schoolroom. Needless to say that the problem of discipline was solved in that room and that there was much live activity in the instructional work. In another schoolroom a young girl was teacher of first, second, and third grades. When I made the first visit I entered the room while she was teaching first grade reading. This was early in the morning. As soon as they had finished she dismissed them and they were soon romping everywhere. On being asked why they were sent out, she said it was her idea of freedom. She was a learner however, and it was not difficult for her to see that there can be freedom in the schoolroom while the children are doing something worthwhile. She hardly batted her eyes while I was talking and on my next visit I found things quite different. At the end of the year she had one of the best prepared first grades in the county.

Why a student of people? Because it is through people and for people that the whole work is done. The supervisor no less than the teacher must take into account individual differences. The group with which he has to work will reach all the way from the young, inexperienced teacher to the mature one; all the way from the timid, shrinking, little girl to the one who is cocksure; all the way from the weakling to the superior teacher; each with his own personality and his own needs. There are many other personalities which touch his work, who must be taken into account, but his direct work is with the teacher himself. The importance of this close study can best be told by illustrations. Among the many which come to my mind is that of a girl who has now been teaching six years. She began after graduating from high school. She is very temperamental, and was in the beginning boisterous. However, being endowed with a high degree

of intelligence, and having a burning ambition to succeed, she had at all times been a learner. This has kept her alert for every opportunity for improvement. She is a tireless worker and only needs to have encouragement with a word of direction here and there. Her children have made high records in achievement, in fact have usually led in the county. Last year she fell heir to a group of children very poorly prepared, and became very much discouraged. She came to me and said, "I'll have to give up, I can't bring these children up to standard." I said, "The good teacher is one who takes the problem as she finds it, and solves it as best she can. Now, I believe in you, and believe you can do this job." She brightened up and said, "I'll do it." It proved to be her best piece of work. Another case is that of a little woman who is of middle age. She is a person with a highly classical turn of mind. She belongs to the old type of teacher but has ambition to know and use new ideas. Whenever a suggestion of change or innovation has been mentioned to her it seemed to rather frighten her, and she would almost invariably say, "I don't believe I can do it." I would say, "All right Miss Mary, don't worry if you can't." I knew what would happen. Many times before I left the building she would come and say, "I believe I can." I knew that at least I would find her working at it when I returned. In the case of the timid little girl who feels that the supervisor is coming to criticise, it is difficult to know just how to approach. Many times I begin the conference by talking about things personal, entirely apart from the school work, then lead her to talk about her work. In this way the restraint is removed and she begins to feel the presence of a friend. Another situation in which there must be sympathetic and wise direction is that of the young girl just out of training. She comes bubbling over with enthusiasm over what she is going to do. She faces a situation so different from that which she knew in the training school, tries out her theories and they fail to work. She becomes discouraged and loses herself. An instance of the type described above was that of a little girl who came to us last year. She was placed in a three-teacher school in charge of two grades. The groups were very small and we did not dream that she would have trouble. To my great surprise, on going to the school just a few days after it opened, I found her completely submerged. She met me with the statement, "These are the meanest children I ever saw. Don't you think I'd better quit?" I said, "Can you afford to quit?" This little girl could answer intelligently almost any question one might ask on theory, and she did not understand why it wouldn't work. The truth was that she had applied it from without instead of within, and, there had been no contact of souls between her and the children. She made a master effort, and really had improved decidedly when she was called home on account of the death of her father. There are many other instances which could be given showing the necessity of understanding personalities. Suffice it to say that it must be a continual study on the part of anyone who is to succeed with the work.

Department of School Health and Physical Education

THE DEPARTMENT OF SCHOOL HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION was known as the Department of Child Study until July 13, 1911. See *Proceedings*, 1911: 870. The Department of Child Study was created at the Asbury Park meeting, July 10, 1894. See *Proceedings*, 1894: 40. In July, 1924, the department was merged with the Department of Physical and Health Education under the name of the Department of School Health and Physical Education. See *Proceedings*, 1924: 96.

The officers of the Department for the year 1926-27 are: *President*, Melville Stewart, State Supervisor of Physical Education, Charleston, W. Va.; *Vice-President*, Mary E. Gross, Director, Department of Physical Education and Hygiene for Women, University of Washington, Seattle, Wash.; *Secretary-Treasurer*, Florence D. Alden, Director, Department of Physical Education for Women, University of Oregon, Eugene, Ore. The Department meets once a year, in June. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1893: 615-678	1902:737-759	1908: 999-1047	1914:683-721	1920: 311-323
1895: 944-950	1903:817-847	1909: 745-789	1915:971-995	1921: 517-523
1896: 893-937	1904:803-843	1910: 921-949	1916:681-699	1922:1085-1099
1897: 870-916	1905:755-781	1911: 905-939	1917:521-535	1923: 744-842
1898: 929-959	1906:711-713	1912:1141-1153	1918:339-359	1924: 637-651
1899:1064-1097	1907:925-951	1913: 667-695	1919:315-323	1925: 577-598
1901: 758-771				

THE NEEDS OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

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PROFESSIONS GROW. This growth is related usually to a service in satisfying human needs. New demands on a profession and the inability of a profession to render a service create problems and needs for the profession.

Physical education considered as a profession that has a service to render has made great progress since the world war began. To date thirty-three states have passed laws requiring physical education in the public schools. Several great social movements are promoting its cause. The opportunities for service are great; the needs for the service are greater.

On the other hand, physical education is enormously handicapped by traditional conceptions of education, and by narrow prejudices about the "physical" and about "play" that are subtle survivals in American social psychology of ancient and discredited philosophies; viz, asceticism with its exaltation of the mind and its contempt for the body; scholasticism with its exaltation of the intellect and its neglect of the emotions; and puritanism with its exaltation of seriousness and its fear and ignorance of play. The "body," the "emotions" and "play" give physical education its being.

These prejudices, strange as it may seem, are strongest among the so-called cultured classes.

The prejudices and their products in educational organization have made many educators antagonistic or indifferent towards physical education. They have confused public opinion. They have enabled selfish workers to twist popular movements to selfish ends. They have hampered and discouraged practical workers.

Physical education as a profession, both because of the new demands upon it and because of the prejudices that hamper it, has needs and problems to solve if it is to render its service.

These needs and problems are of four classes:

1. The need of an interpretation of physical education and a statement of its objectives;
2. The need of a scientifically formulated program of physical education that school men and the public may recognize as standard;
3. The need of a standard university professional education that will produce an adequate supply of competent leaders who can organize and conduct the program; and
4. The need of a promotional campaign to develop a supporting public opinion that will make it possible for professional workers to execute the program and achieve its objectives.

The first need of physical education is an interpretation of its nature and a formulation of its objectives. The main items in such an interpretation and statement of objectives may be suggested. Physical education is a part of education. It is a teaching profession and it has grown with the

social need for an institutionally organized education, especially in the school. To interpret it, the first essential is to recognize that the conceptions of both education and physical education have changed with social progress.

Education as a whole has been completely revolutionized in fifty years. The original function of the school, as we know it today, was to give a narrow literacy and book cultural education. All the rest of education (life and the preparation for life) went on as a natural process in the home and community. Education in this larger sense was identical with life. But the school, on account of the social changes due to the introduction of machinery into industry since 1860, and the practical elimination of educative activities from the home, has been compelled to assume many new functions and to incorporate into the curriculum many new "subjects of study." Hence a curriculum of "subjects of study" has evolved which is complex, unscientific, difficult to administer, and economically wasteful. This unsatisfactory situation is compelling still further change in school organization.

The new significant tendency in organization is the unification of old artificially separated "subjects of study" into natural teaching and administrative divisions of activities which are similar to or identical with out-of-school natural life activities and which enable the school organization of activities or curriculum to carry over into the out-of-school life and control it. Note the tendencies to unification in the social science activities, the natural science activities, the manual activities, the musical activities, the linguistic communicative activities and the big muscle activities. These are natural units of activities for teaching and educational administration. The school organization is drifting to this type of organization of a curriculum of activities and a total direction of child life.

Physical education through its basic activities, the big muscle activities, has become one of the fundamental teaching and administrative divisions or units in the newer school organization.

As a part of the larger change in education as a whole and because of the same social influences, physical education has had two histories. One is the history of "formal" activities or "gymnastic drills" in the schoolroom which are rapidly dwindling in influence because of exploded values; the other is the history of the natural play life of children and youth out of school in the home and community environment.

The history of the play life shows two movements; first, the tendency, previous to 1906, to break down under the cramping influences of an adult organized industrial civilization, and then, after 1906, the reestablishment of the play life by an elaborate social propaganda. This propaganda was initiated and conducted by adults especially through the Playground and Recreation Association of America. It carried a new conception of an institutionally organized physical education and it established a new technic in the practical conduct of physical education.

The new physical education is the racially old natural physical education

through play but enormously elaborated and systematized to meet the educational needs of children and youth under present-day conditions of living and an institutionally organized education. It is centered in the play activities of the play space, the playground, the athletic field, the track, the swimming pool, the dancing floor, the park, the road, and the open fields. This is the activity content of the new program in physical education that is being assimilated into the school organization, and into other institutional organizations of education. For brevity we will refer only to the school organization.

Thus we conceive of physical education as one of the six fundamental teaching and administrative divisions or units of the total school organization of general education. We can hardly overemphasize this conception. One of the items in this conception that needs great emphasis is that physical education is not concerned with "exercise" in the adult sense except for adults; but with a primary division of fundamental educative activities.

As physical education is a part of education, its objectives, like those of any teaching and administrative division of education, can be stated or defined only as a part of the objectives of education as a whole; and the objectives of education as a whole must be defined in broad enough terms to include all the objectives of all the teaching and administrative units, else the statement is false or partial.

A review of the literature shows that the objectives of education are stated from four points of view, all of which are interrelated.

The first point of view in stating objectives is that of the *organizing leadership* of children or individuals in activities. All the objectives or values there are in education, whether in the school or out of the school, are resident in the activities and in the leadership of the activities. Hence, the first aim of physical education is to organize and lead children in one teaching and administrative unit of educative activities—the big muscle activities. Here, we deal directly with the individual's own conscious active life.

As compared with other units of activities, the big muscle activities, especially during childhood and youth, are the most generally interesting to all children, the most time consuming, the most dominantly social, and the most vigorous. These are the educational characteristics of physical education activities.

The second point of view in stating or defining objectives is that of the development of the powers of the organism in educative activities. Educators and society as a whole are interested in the cumulative, remote or end results of educative activities in terms of the development of the personal powers of individuals and the adjustment of the developing powers to adult social ways of living. Development is primary. All the end results as objectives are resident or inherent in the developmental changes in activities. All learned activities involve changes in the organism and in the adjustment of the organism to the environment. The cumulative results of the changes give development. The four aspects in considering the changes and the results in development are:

- a. The primary changed meaning of the situation and the cumulative interpretive or intellectual development;
- b. The primary change in satisfaction or annoyance and the cumulative impulsive development (interests, drives, etc.);
- c. The primary change in neural connections and muscular contractions and the cumulative development of the nervous system or menti-motor strengths and skills; and
- d. The primary change in the nutritive function and the cumulative development of nutritive or organic power, symbolized by endurance.

These changes in the activities are the source of all learned activities and all acquired abilities. They are the source of all development of the organism as distinct from the growth due to heredity. The changes are inherent in the learning responses; the development is inherent in the repetition of the responses or activities.

All the aspects of change take place in every teaching and administrative unit of educative activity but in different degrees. Hence the values and *developmental* objectives of any teaching and administrative unit of activities, as distinct from any other educative activity, are inherent in the nature of the activity and the capacities it exercises. For this reason the big muscle activities are superior to any other unit of educative activities, (a) in the development of general organic power or vitality and endurance; (b) in the development of the general integrating function of the nervous system, of general nervous power illustrated by menti-motor strength and skill including the well recognized habits of posture and carriage; and (c) in the development of the deeper and more powerful emotional mechanisms and thought processes in total-body overt responses to the material and human environment. The development of organic power, nervous power, emotional power, and habits and interests is the *developmental source of health*. The development of habits in the emotional mechanisms and thought processes in the intense social relationships of play is the basic laboratory source of character. The realization of these fundamental results are the *special developmental objectives* of physical education.

The third point of view in stating or defining objectives is that of social adjustment to the adult functions of life: the vocational, civic, cultural, recreative, domestic.

Adult adjustment to adult social ways of living in performing the functions of adult life arises from the specific development in the specific activities of adult life. The abilities, however, to enter into the specific activities of adult life are acquired slowly and they depend on development in the more general educative or developmental activities characteristic of child life. Adjustment depends on development.

Each of the fundamental teaching and administrative units of educative activities makes its distinctive contribution to the development necessary for efficiency in the adult functions. This contribution is according to the powers developed by the unit of activities. Physical education through the development inherent in big muscle activities makes its fundamental

contribution, but this contribution is the same as that listed under the developmental objectives, not in specific adult adjustments. All adult adjustment is built on the powers outlined under the developmental objectives. Time prevents the amplifications of this significant relationship.

The fourth point of view in defining objectives is that of standards or ideals. Standards as objectives are *judgments* of the quality of the activity, or of development or of adjustment or of the organism, derived from racial experience or science. Only two groups of standards as objectives can be considered here: moral character and health.

Character is a system of action traits. The source of all the learned ways of acting or action traits is entirely in the developmental results of activities. Without activity there can be no development of character. But the moral quality of the responses and of the traits exercised in the activity is determined chiefly by leadership. This leadership is either social example or a positive directing companionship or teaching.

Each unit of educative activity has inherent in its nature the exercise of certain tendencies, abilities or traits that, under a standardizing leadership, establishes standard character traits, as, for example, interests. Further, each activity because of its nature has characteristic moral situations arise in the social relationships of the activity which furnish the leader the opportunity to guide moral judgments, attitudes, and practices.

Physical education or the big muscle play activities have inherent in them the exercise of the deepest and most powerful character forming emotional tendencies in human nature and they furnish the richest source of fundamental moral situations in the social relationships of children and youth. Because of the universal interest in these big muscle play activities, their intensely social nature, the great amount of time they naturally consume, and their susceptibility to leadership, they are the fundamental laboratory activities of a school program in moral education. Moral education is one of the supreme objectives of physical education.

Health is a condition of the organism. It is idealized as positive good health. This is the social standard of health. It is the product of heredity, activity (or behavior) and the environment. The school in its educative or *teaching* function, is concerned with the individual's activity or behavior. It is also concerned with the protection of children from the results of the other two factors which will be considered later. The health of the adult individual depends largely on his own conduct and this conduct requires the establishment of health practices, impelling interest and judgment.

The difficulty with the school problem in teaching health (or "health education" properly defined) is that the most important health practices take place outside the school and away from the teacher's personal direction. Further, health practices are not generally interesting or satisfying in themselves and satisfaction is the primary guide to conduct. This reduces the school problem in teaching health to a central problem of developing interests in health that will carry over to out-of-school health situations. This interest requires a purpose. The purpose that is psychologically valid

is found in the "keep fit" or "training" or conditioning ideal because of the relationship of condition to the enjoyment of activities or the achievement of purposes in life activities. The primary purposes of children are resident in the developmental activities; the keep fit purposes are secondary and the drive in them is related to the primary purposes.

Physical education, because of the teaching and administrative unit of activities it directs, furnishes the broadest and deepest setting for an effective method in teaching health. It is the natural foundation for the building of interests in health. Other units of activities may supplement the building of interests and expand the information but physical education is the natural correlating center for such efforts. The teaching of a habit-building, interest-driven, thought-controlled conduct is one of the chief objectives of physical education.

So far we have considered the objectives only in the educative function of the school or of any institutional organization of education. Traditionally, education has been concerned with the leadership and the results of activities; but when institutionally organized as in the school it must take over another of the two primary functions of parents and all adults in dealing with the immature, viz., the protective function.

The purposes or *objectives* of this protective function are to free children and youth from the handicapping influences of crippling injuries, an unhygienic environment, growth defects, infections and communicable diseases. This is the old function of the home and part of the function of public health protection. Such protection by the school is necessary if children are to grow and develop normally, and profit by the educational procedures of the school. Hence, education, in its institutional organization in the school, has been compelled in self-defense, to assume this protective attitude more and more.

The protective function is a moral and usually a legal responsibility of the school. It is a moral responsibility of every teacher in personal charge of children and usually in administratively assigned function in some degree of every teacher in the elementary schools.

As the protective function is a moral responsibility of every teacher, it is a responsibility of every teacher in physical education. Where educative activities are departmentally organized as in large elementary schools, in junior and senior high schools, and in normal schools and colleges, this protective function becomes a special responsibility of the specialized director of physical education. This is a natural division of administrative responsibilities because of the physical educator's special responsibilities in achieving health objectives in the educative functions of the school. The objectives in the protective function become special objectives of physical education.

In the interpretation of education and the part of it called physical education it is important to emphasize the distinction between the educative and protective functions, otherwise there is a disastrous confusion in the administrative organization of these functions in the school. The chief

point is that the protective function is an administrative function not a teaching function. It has primarily no necessary connection whatever with skill in teaching health. While some of the procedures in health protection may be used in the procedures in teaching health, the latter is *a matter of skill in the educative function*, not in the protective function. Health protection is purely an administrative function which is fulfilled by its organization as an administrative responsibility. Skill in this responsibility carries with it no skill in teaching.

This distinction is vitally important for the unique, fundamental educative functions of physical education because of the tendency to put medical men in charge of departments in schools including health and physical education who are by training totally incompetent to administer the educative functions of physical education. This tendency in administrative organization is the logical result of the vicious, though usually unconscious, traditional habit of thinking of children's big muscle activities in terms of exercise in the adult sense and therefore as a "health practice." In this sense, children never "exercise" spontaneously. They play, and play is nature's method of education. The educator is the expert ally of nature in the organization of play, not the pathologist. Further, health is a condition of the organism and an ideal, not an activity. Health cannot be an administrative unit in the school organization, except for health protection, because it has no activity to administer. Health, as an ideal, sets standards for all life activities or right ways of carrying on the activities; it should saturate all activities. It is not a separate activity. Administration is resident in the teaching and administrative units of activities; the standards are a function of the leadership of the activities. To set up health as an administrative unit in education, including health protection and one unit of educative activities, is as ridiculous as to set up morals as an administrative unit based on moral protection and one unit of educative activities.

To summarize this first need of physical education in an interpretation and statement of its objectives in relationship to education as a whole, two definitions may be presented. School education is, first, a leadership of individuals in activities which give development and adjustment according to standards, and, second, a protection of individuals from handicapping influences so growth, development and adjustment according to standards may proceed naturally and normally.

Physical education is that phase of education which is concerned, first, with the leadership of individuals in big muscle activities to gain the development and the adjustment inherent in the activities according to standards, and, second, with the protection of individuals from handicapping influences so that growth, development, and adjustment through the general educative function of the school may proceed naturally and normally.

The second need of physical education in its professional service is a scientifically formulated program. The word program in this sense, refers to the organization of the professional procedures used in any service in achieving results with the individuals being served.

The program is naturally based directly on the objectives in the functions of physical education.

These functions and objectives of physical education give two broad divisions to its program: (1) the educative program, and (2) the protective program.

I. *The educative program* because of the objectives it must realize has three natural sub-programs. These are: (a) the program in activities or the curriculum of activities; (b) the program in character education, and (c) the program in teaching health or health education.

A. The activity program is the basic program. There can be no education without activity. In the scientific formulation of this activity program several principles are of fundamental importance.

1. The activities must be selected according to their *values*. Such a selection by criteria of the developmental and adjusting values of the activities puts the emphasis on the natural developmental or play activities. While the program must retain the artificial or formal activities for use, where such activities have a specific value, they are relegated, in a scientific process of evaluation, to a distinctly subordinate place.

2. The activities must be *adapted* to the age, sex, and individual differences in mental tendencies and in motor and organic capacities and needs determined by tests. These principles give an age progression in activities by years with a differentiation in the activities for boys and for girls over ten years of age and an individual progression according to motor ability. The principles require further an adaptation to organic capacity and to special individual handicaps.

3. The adapted and evaluated activities must be formulated for practical organization and leadership under school conditions to meet the developmental needs for a large amount and a great variety of activity. This principle requires an organization to teach activities within school hours that will tend to go on by their inherent interest during out-of-school hours and it requires an extension of the school organization into the out-of-school leisure time.

Such an activity program is a natural program that carries over into child life and on into later adult life. Its scientific validity is a guarantee that the developmental objectives of physical education may be achieved.

B. The character education program is based on the activity program but has its own teaching procedure. Character, morals, and manners are developed in activities and only in activities under a standardizing leadership. But an instructor may organize and teach the coordinations and the strategy in physical education activities perfectly and not consciously direct the character and disciplining responses in the activities. Such direction requires a knowledge of and skill in the special technic of leadership or teaching in the character training that is inherent in the activities and in the moral situations that arise in the social relationships in the activities.

Physical education must have a special program of teaching constructed by a scientific analysis of the character training and moral situations that arise in big muscle activities and by a scientifically tested technic in the leadership of the responses in the activities and situations. Sportsmanship, the Golden Rule applied to the ethics of play, is the popular keyword that suggests the nature of the program. The program is fundamental to all school efforts in moral education.

C. The health teaching program is also based on the activity program. But an instructor may secure all the values for health in the development of organic, nervous, and emotional powers and in activity interests, without establishing an effective and abiding self-directing interest in health practices. On this self-impelling interest the stability of health practices depends. Such an interest and self-directed practice require a special program of leadership and teaching pro-

cedures in which the physical educator must be as consciously skilled as in teaching the activities. Further, he must know the values of and methods in the other teaching units of activities. Because of the interest in the activities he directs, he is the correlating center in all school efforts to teach health.

The program must be constructed by a scientific analysis of the psychology of health practices and of conditioning the self. Training or keeping-fit are the popular notions of this program. This program must be formulated as the foundation of all school efforts in teaching health.

These three sub-programs of activities, character training and health teaching constitute the natural educative program due to the essential nature of the activities and the standardizing leadership of the activities in physical education as a teaching and administrative division of education as a whole.

II. The *protective program* is built on the second function of the school and of the physical educator: the care and protection of children so all handicaps on the normal growth, development and the educational progress shall be removed. Traditionally this program has been referred to as health supervision, health inspection, health work, medical inspection, etc., all of which are unsatisfactory titles because they do not suggest the function of this program. The function is distinctly one of protection.

The principles in the scientific construction of the protective program are better understood than the principles in the educative program so time need not be devoted to them. For clearness, however, because of the confusion due to the overhead administration of departments of physical education and of health, one point should be noted. Physical educators, or those who have specialized as health experts, must construct a protective program that they can administer in connection with their educative functions. This is a necessity if there is to be a protective service, especially in the supervision of teachers in rural and small city school systems and in consolidated high schools. This primary program should include the health inspection, the reference, and the follow-up. It should not include any special clinical service. Special clinical service is a larger program requiring the employment of physicians.

The third need of physical education is a standard and recognized professional education. The success of physical education depends ultimately upon the scholarly expertness of physical educators.

The need for a broader and higher professional education in physical education has been in evidence for more than twenty years. During this time the need has been indicated by three demands; (a) the demand in new movements for a leadership or technical service that could not be met by available workers; (b) the demand by progressive school officers and others for advanced experts who were too scarce to meet the demand, and (c) the demand on the part of ambitious professional workers for advanced training of a type that was not offered anywhere. The efforts to meet these needs and demands have been totally inadequate. In this connection, a review of the history of professional education since the early nineties presents two conspicuous groups of facts.

The first group of facts is that the schools of education in universities (the institutions that are supposed to train the leaders and experts in education) have, as a rule, paid no attention to physical education or to a professional education in physical education. As a consequence (a) educational leaders who are the graduates of these institutions have gone into

service without knowledge, insight, or criteria of judgment about physical education; and (b) earnest physical educators have not been able to secure the advanced professional education that prepared them specifically for the more difficult problems with which they have to deal.

The second group of facts is that the men in physical education now passing off the stage, who assumed the leadership and dominated the leadership of physical education during the last generation, all advocated a medical education for physical education. The reason for this advocacy was that under contemporary public prejudices against the physical, the medical education gave a social and academic status, and it gave authority to make physical examinations and deal with health problems.

But the results of this advocacy were disastrous for the progress of physical education. It left physical education, unlike medicine or engineering or other learned professions, without an organized promotional development, supported by its leaders, of a distinctive professional education. It left physical education without a professional education that produced professional experts progressively competent according to social needs to think and solve the educational problems of physical education. A medical education gives no competence to solve the educational problems of physical education.

The lack of such a distinctive university training in the past has left physical education today with a disastrously inadequate supply of educationally trained experts of high ability who have the experience and the maturity in years of the forties and early fifties to step into positions of great responsibility. Frequently medical men are put into these positions who are not trained as physical educators. In either case physical education does not achieve its objectives.

So the supreme need of physical education, in the interest of the unique and fundamentally important service it has to render, is a distinctive university program of professional education.

Recently, especially since the war, the movement in universities for the establishment of a higher professional education has gained great momentum. But the past has left this movement without adequate criteria or precedent as the structural organization of a professional training curriculum. The problem in the construction of such a curriculum is complex, yet its solution is mandatory if physical education is to render its service.

The only scientific or valid method of formulating the nature and the content of a curriculum in professional education is, first, to determine the functions of experts and specialists in physical education, and then determine the training necessary to give competence to perform the functions.

The method of determining the functions (the basic problem) is a constructive job or vocational analysis. The word "constructive" refers to the necessity of determining not only what the physical educator is doing but what he must do. What he must do is determined by the needs of children, the objectives of physical education and the nature of institutionally organized education. This analysis reveals the fact that society

and education must have in the physical educator an expert trained as the director of the normal growth and development of children with the direction centered in education through physical activities. This requires the ability to examine and classify children according to their needs and adapt activities to the needs.

The courses which give the training necessary to perform the functions revealed by the constructive job or vocational analysis fall into three divisions:

I. General academic or "cultural" studies apart from sciences

II. The foundation sciences

III. The professional sciences in which the courses in personal technic in the activities and in methods of teaching are only one of several groups.

Concerning the lists of courses under these headings, time permits only a passing comment on two points: first, the content of the training, and second, the degree of training.

First as to the content of the training, we need to insist that an individual may have endless personal skill in physical education activities, and even great skill in coaching some of them, and know nothing about the science of physical education so he is a safe expert in the direction of children's activities. The reverse proposition of ignorance of the activities also needs emphasis. Great personal skill and teaching skill in physical education activities are imperative for any individual who presumes to be an expert in physical education. Without this knowledge and skill one cannot think the scientific problems in physical education, and, experience shows, cannot even administer physical education to achieve its objectives.

To be competent, the physical educator must be a technical expert in the activities that determine his teaching and administrative division of education and he must know the sciences of physical education. These sciences require a deeper laboratory training in prerequisite foundation sciences than any other teaching and administrative division of education.

The degree or amount of training required of the expert dictates a division of the professional education into an undergraduate and a graduate curriculum. The problem becomes: at what point in the sequence of courses should the distinction be made between a standard four-year undergraduate curriculum and a standard three-year graduate curriculum. A practical and clear-cut distinction is possible. It is the distinction between the training necessary, on the one hand, for the personal skill and teaching skill to act as high class instructors in conducting the practical programs, and, on the other hand, the training necessary for competence to perform the full functions of the physical educator in positions of large responsibility or in positions requiring specialization in the sciences of physical education.

With such distinctive professional training curricula in the many universities now developing professional training programs, physical education will have in time an adequate supply of experts, and thus be able to render its unique service.

The fourth need of physical education is that the profession shall organize a promotional development of physical education.

Physical education cannot render its service and achieve its distinctive objectives without a supporting public opinion. Public opinion determines the kinds of positions open to physical educators and the kind of service they can render when in the positions. Public opinion as it works on, and through school men, is especially important. School officials need help. They must face the public with the mounting costs of education, and the costs of a real physical education are high. The costs are due to the great space required for playgrounds, athletic fields, running tracks, swimming pools, gymnasium floors, and the further high cost of equipment for all these centers of activity. Yet physical educators can show that if physical education is properly organized, the costs are overbalanced by savings in other costs through a reduction in the inefficiency in education in general, in the wastage of character, in ill health, and in delinquency and crime. That there is no general public consciousness of such values is obvious. School men should be convinced of the facts so they can use them with the public.

That the profession of physical education has not adequately met the need for a promotional development of public opinion to keep it abreast of the social need for the service of physical education, might be proved by many striking illustrations. Most striking among these is the number of social movements that have arisen and that have been established in public favor without at the same time any effective effort being made to establish the public recognition or conviction that the movements were physical education movements. For example, the playground movement is a physical education movement. The playground is a place for physical education. The activities on the playground are physical education activities. The playground, as an institutionalized play center, has never been and never can be anything but a physical education establishment. Yet few citizens have any illuminating consciousness or conviction about these facts. Public education has been neglected.

Other social movements that are in whole or in part physical education movements, might be presented with similar arguments, as, for example, the athletic movement, the Boy Scouts movement, the summer camp movement, the outdoor recreation and "exercise" movement for adults, the health education movement, etc. Physical educators have been conspicuous figures in all these movements, but the organized profession has not interpreted physical education through them so the public sees physical education in them, or sees them as physical education. The confusion of public opinion is the proof.

The public, especially since the beginning of the war, has felt a need that is not satisfied by any past professional leadership or service. This need the public has not been able to interpret as a whole or to find a total method of satisfying. The public is conscious of a partial satisfaction through each of the social movements just listed. But physical education is the

correlating center of a professionally organized service that satisfies the need as a whole. The profession should declare the fact.

Among the items that should be promoted by a systematically organized educational campaign is a public understanding of the phrase "physical education." The word "physical" has been a handicap to the service of physical education, but no one has been able to suggest a satisfactory substitute. The phrase "health education" as a substitute name, it might be shown, would be a greater handicap. So it is with other names. "Physical education" is the traditional phrase that symbolized a dominant human need and it is a distinctive professional service under modern social conditions. What is needed is a proper public understanding of the meaning of the phrase. The source of the prejudice against the word "physical" has been suggested. The prejudice should be lifted. By proper promotion the attitude towards education through "physical" activities could be changed to a dynamic public approval just as the prejudice against the word "play" was lifted by the playground and recreation movement.

The prejudice must be eliminated. It must be replaced by an intelligent public opinion. The progress of child welfare, health, and morality depends upon it. But the need for this change has greater social significance than the progress of physical education alone. The stability or progress of civilization itself depends upon a sound organism or "physical" as a national trait. There can be no sane, wholesome, moral national life, in the long prospective, without a people with sound bodies. In the achievement of a sound physical, as a racial ideal, eugenics holds the key to latent capacities, medicine holds the key to the elimination of diseases, physical education holds the key to the development of the fundamental latent capacities as they function in activity or behavior.

Thus, physical education as a profession has special professional needs and problems to solve in order that it may render its distinctive service.

PUBLIC SCHOOL HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

GROVER W. MUELLER, SPECIAL ASSISTANT TO THE DIRECTOR OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

Folks are usually interested in what is actually being done, in what is being tried out, and in the practical application of some of the principles they have read and heard so much about. And so I decided to discuss some practical applications as they have been worked out in the city of Philadelphia. I shall do this rather briefly and in so doing will try primarily to show how we endeavor to gain the child's interest and cooperation in health by correlating health education with a program of physical activities.

Doctor Broome, our superintendent of schools, has very definitely adopted the policy that health education should be in the hands of the department of physical education in all of the grades, from the first to the twelfth.

Our supervisors supervise the instruction in health education in the seventh and eighth grades of the elementary schools, in all of the grades of the junior high schools, and have just begun in the senior high schools. Within a year or two the first six grades of the elementary schools will undoubtedly be included.

We are not yet sure that the teaching of health education in the senior high schools should be limited to teachers of physical education. We are sure, however, that it should be directed and supervised by our people. During the past few months I have been visiting the senior high schools in this city in order to find out the amount and scope of health education which is offered in such courses as general science, biology, physiology, civics, social studies, and the domestic arts. I found that a considerable amount of information was being offered the pupils which requires but that a health slant be given it to make it valuable as health education. It is very possible that the best results may be obtained by spreading out the instruction over these several subjects, and giving the instruction in the required courses in physiology and hygiene over to teachers of physical education for the purpose of focusing the information gained in the other subjects more definitely upon health. And also for greater emphasis on the side of its practical application.

We in Philadelphia are in enthusiastic agreement with the idea that health education and physical education should be very closely correlated. We recognize in them two intimately related factors in the process of physical and social development. We believe that health education should consist primarily in the development of an intelligent and enthusiastic attitude toward health. Such an attitude as I have in mind can not be developed by the mere dissemination of health information nor by the inculcation of certain health habits, important as these are. The desire for health must be vital in the child. The child must desire it if results are to be obtained. The behaviorists tell us that the only way we can educate or reform is thru the desires, the needs, and the interests of the individual. We try to carry out this idea in our program by means mainly of the correlation between health and physical education to which I have already referred.

The course of study in health education which we have just completed for grades 7, 8, and 9 is arranged in four parallel columns which respectively embrace the following subject-matter:

1. Anatomy.
2. Physiology.
3. Conditions to be remedied or avoided.
4. Related health habits.

Just enough anatomy and physiology is taught to provide a basis for and to make possible an understanding of the "conditions to be remedied and avoided" and, what is of greater importance, the "related health habits."

The effect and value of exercise is introduced in every possible relation-

ship. And the effect of the practice of the various health habits, such as resting, eating, sleeping, breathing fresh air, et cetera, upon proficiency in physical activities is strongly emphasized.

In the program of physical activities we try to offer a large amount of interesting material much of which is accurately measurable. Thus, we have age-aims in track and field events and climbing for all pupils except those in the lowest grades. These aims are revised from time to time and are based upon the actual accomplishment of all the pupils in the city. That accomplishment which represents what 75 percent of the children at each age can do is taken as the minimum aim for that age. We believe that practically every healthy normal child should be able to at least meet this aim. If a child cannot, the chances are that he is not in normal health. In many cases the cause of the inability is undoubtedly traceable to a nonobservance of the laws of health. Teachers are urged to examine the child who cannot do physically what he should, to find the cause for this physical backwardness. The reason for retardation may be underweight caused by some fault in eating. It may be underheight caused by a lack of exercise, or a lack of sunshine. It may be some physical defect that demands attention of the family physician.

During the last few years we have prepared a "measuring stick" to help us understand our pupils. This is a chart showing the relation of height and weight to age, and also to the physical type—tall and slender, average, stocky. This chart is now to be found in every school. If a child is placed in the doubtful class because of his inability to perform the physical work outlined for his age, the height-weight-type chart is used to find out how he compares with other children of his type and age, or his type and height. If according to this measurement he also is below normal, our teachers have additional evidence upon which they can give advice or base the special treatment necessary for the child.

In these ways, both in the physical education activities and in the health education classes the intimate relation between the observance of health habits and physical efficiency is emphasized to the child.

Athletic ability tests—For those who have accomplished the minimum aims, we have higher aims which are designated "good achievement." And beyond this we have six sets of athletic ability tests, three each for boys and girls, of increasing difficulty. Any child who has met his age-aim requirements may take these tests. The tests exist not only on paper, but are actually and extensively carried on. Last year, 10,466 boys and 9041 girls took test No. 1; 4966 boys and 3807 girls took test No. 2; and 535 boys and 194 girls took test No. 3. This year a considerably larger number took part.

Such tests serve the purpose not only of providing interesting and healthful activity but provide at the same time an incentive to all; and also, we hope, a strong motive for the practice of health habits.

Competition—intra-school activities—We believe thoroughly in the value of competition in the education of the child; not alone for its physical,

moral, and social values but also because it affords a powerful incentive to healthful living. We put much effort into attempts to organize after-school play and athletics in such manner that many boys and girls are given an opportunity to take part in these activities, and are thereby enabled to derive the benefits of competition.

The board of education has established 50 after-school playgrounds which are open daily for two hours after school and also for six hours on Saturday. These grounds are in the care of paid teachers who are selected from the teaching staff of the local school. The first hour of each day is devoted mainly to intra and inter class activity, most of which is in the form of organized competition.

Besides the 50 organized playgrounds a great many of our elementary schools and also of our junior and senior high schools conduct organized intra-school play and competition under voluntary supervision. During the past year, 92,478 junior high school boys and girls were participants in such competition. This figure, of course, embraces all of the participants during the year and therefore many pupils are counted more than once. In the same way, there were 44,578 senior high school participants. I have no exact figures to give for the elementary schools.

Inter-school competition—Finally, for the physically superior boys and girls, we conduct an extensive program of inter-school competition. Carefully selected men and women officiate in all of these contests. In the elementary and junior high schools they are paid by the board of education. The activities include the various games and athletics with which you are all familiar, and are suitable to the grade in which they are used. Let me quote a few more figures to show the extent of our interschool competition.

This year 109 of our 199 elementary schools participated in this form of activity. Many of the schools which did not take part have only six grades. The competition was organized into 67 sectional leagues. Three hundred and three teams were entered, 737 games were played, and 10,109 boys and girls participated. These figures do not include our annual sectional field meets. One hundred and forty teachers of physical education and 139 teachers of other subjects carried on this work.

In our 12 junior high schools, 4918 boys and girls took part in 442 contests. Forty-four teachers of physical education and 53 teachers of other subjects were active in this work.

In the senior high schools, 3626 participants engaged in 295 contests under the direction of 73 teachers of physical education and 30 teachers of other subjects.

By means of all that I have mentioned we try to vitalize the desire for health by means of interesting and vigorous activity. We try, furthermore, to use the accomplishment in many of these activities as definite measuring rods of the child's health. That we have by no means a perfect program no one realizes better than we ourselves. But we do feel that we are on the right track.

Vitalizing health education—I believe you will be interested in hearing

of a plan which we have carried out during the past two years for vitalizing health education in the junior high schools. We are quite satisfied with the results so far shown.

The plan was made possible by the sincere cooperation of the health day committee of Philadelphia. Several conferences lead to the formation of definite principles that should underlie a plan to win the interest of that most impressionable group, the junior high school pupils, in the formation of definite health habits and to win these adolescents over to a constructive program for health education. The public health day committee donated a bronze trophy that annually should be presented to the junior high school that during the year did most among its pupils to promote the health habits included in the plan.

The factors for awarding the trophy are as follows:

- I. Physical vigor of the pupils (weight, 50 points).
 - II. Correction of remedial defects (weight, 20 points).
 - III. Health habits (weight, 30 points).
1. The physical vigor of pupils is to be determined by the percent of pupils passing the jumping, throwing, running and apparatus aims.
 2. The record of a school in "Proportion of Physical Defects Corrected," as determined by the Division of Medical Inspection, is used in computing this score.
 3. Health habits. Weight, 30 points, divided as follows:
 - A. Proper weight for age, type and height. (Weight 10.)
This factor is to be determined by the use of the age-type-height-charts of the division of physical and health education. Every overweight and underweight pupil is starred (*) when the pupils are first weighed. Pupils weigh themselves frequently and if the proper weight is reached before the end of term the star (*) is removed.
 - B. Cleanliness. Weight, 20, subdivided as follows:
 1. Of pupils. (Weight, 10.)
 2. Of building. (Weight, 10.) Note: Only those conditions for which the pupils are obviously responsible are considered.

A committee of three supervisors make a sanitary inspection once a term using the following scale for rating the schools:

- a. Toilets, washrooms, shower baths, drinking fountains (4 points).
- b. Lunchrooms (3).
- c. Gymnasiums and play yard (1).
- d. Hallways and locker rooms (1).
- e. Classrooms (1).

As stated previously, we are satisfied with the results so far obtained.

Character education—Another project in which you will probably be interested is one which has been named the "Merit Grouping Plan."

Recent years have seen many plans to unify all phases of school work and so make them contribute more toward the goal called "Character education."

A like idea, several years ago, led to a reorganization of our physical education work and to a rearrangement of value-weights of some of this

work. After several years of experimentation the procedure that was found to be most advantageous was called a "Merit Grouping Plan."

The fundamental idea underlying the plan was to group and arrange those features now operating in our schools into an ideal that in the eyes of adolescents was worth striving for. The goal set before the pupils was to become a "Merit Pupil" by qualifying in definite worthwhile educational standards.

The plan places before the pupils an ideal embracing five factors. The factors are physical ability, scholastic standing, a sound physique, personal hygiene, and sportsmanlike conduct. Pupils who receive a rating of "G" in all the five factors are classed as merit pupils and are awarded a "Certificate of Merit."

In order to have an "accomplishment scale" for these factors, definite requirements had to be outlined by means of which a pupil could see where he stood in each factor. This rating scale is as follows for the five factors:

1. *Physical quotient*—G, represents 115 or more; F, 100 to 114 inclusive, and P, 99 or less.

The procedure for calculating the physical quotient is found on our score sheet.

2. *Scholastic standing*—G represents a rating of "G" or better in five or more subjects, two of which must be in the following: English, mathematics, social studies and science. "F" represents promotion at the end of the term and "P" represents non-promotion.

3. *Remedial physical defects*—"G" indicates none, "F" indicates removal of at least one, and "P" indicates removal of none.

4. *Personal Hygiene*—"G" signifies good attention, "F" fair attention, and "P" poor attention.

5. *Sportsmanslike conduct*—"G" denotes good, "F" fair, and "P" poor.

This project entails a considerable amount of work and must be undertaken with enthusiasm to be successful. For this reason no attempt has been made to push it into all of the schools at once. Only in those schools in which the supervisors felt it would receive support and encouragement was it introduced. Each year finds a few additional schools taking it up and without exception these schools seem well pleased with the results. One principal said a few days ago that if the department of physical education ever decided to discontinue the plan he would carry it on of his own accord.

HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS—ABSTRACT

CLIFFORD J. SCOTT, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, EAST ORANGE, N. J.

To integrate an adequate, comprehensive program of health and physical activities with the total work of the schools raises problems not easy of solution by the administrator. The challenge is to both the specialist and the superintendent.

The successful health program is one that permeates the whole of school

life and work. Health, stated separately as one of the objectives of education, is involved in nearly every other aim that is listed. Other aims are contingent upon its attainment. The reverse is equally true, its realization cannot be achieved should it stand alone. In fact, the movement of the whole educational process is toward a unified, coordinated, interrelated program of studies.

The definitions of education in recent years have given a broader scope and a change of emphasis to our aims. The school's general problem is how to produce the self-active, socially-minded individuals who can be trusted with the privileges of citizenship. The things we do in school are not ends in themselves but are society's means of securing worthy members with developed individual capacity and a genius for cooperation. The purpose, then, of education is to improve the quality of human living. Its process is not one of putting into cold storage for some future use of certain subject information. The process, consequently, in health and physical education is one of securing the continuous living by individuals in a wholesome manner physically, mentally, and socially. There are those who believe that the education of the youth should minister to his present needs and that the curriculum should be built around his changing interests. Others hold the traditional belief that the school's chief end is to prepare for adult life and that the curriculum should give that which serves the pupil when an adult. In our physical education program, no such choice is necessary since it is so evident that both objectives should prevail. It is doubtful, however, if many of our actual programs do definitely seek to serve not only the wellbeing of the present boy and girl, but also to give interests and attitudes and activities that carry over into later life. The formal calisthenics and gymnastic exercises will not adequately serve this larger two-fold purpose. My plea is for a conscious, intelligent major endeavor on the part of our physical instructors to carry on a program which does not end with schooldays. In this connection it may be said that to narrow and confine the purpose of physical education to that of producing good health is to an extent defeating the desire that the pupil be given something that is lifelong in its satisfaction and use. The life that finds joy in recreation, that has interest in games, and that seeks activities that call for physical prowess, is one from which health naturally flows. If we direct our efforts to the end of securing the child's health and neglect the interests and pleasures that supply the permanent means of healthful living after instruction and direction end, we fail to realize the larger goal of physical education. Health education must eventuate in wise self-guidance.

It is not necessary that all the aims of the school be discussed which physical education may serve, in order to make emphatic the need that this phase of our work be directed to the accepted educational goals. A list of them, however, would also include the wise use of leisure time, the building of character, the development of potential leadership, and the correction of unsocial attitudes.

It is important that physical education leaders fully realize that the school administrator must count heavily on their understanding of these aims and clearly see the great significance of their work in the attainment of the objectives for which the present-day school must strive.

TEACHING AND SUPERVISING HEALTH EDUCATION— ABSTRACT

ELMA ROOD, ASSISTANT PROFESSOR, NURSING EDUCATION, GEORGE PEABODY
COLLEGE FOR TEACHERS, NASHVILLE, TENN.

Teaching and supervising health education involves a clear translation and analysis of the life situations and activities in order that the classroom teacher may appreciate all available factors which influence the health, behavior, and attitude of each child, excluding from the child's experience those factors whose influence is unfavorable, and searching for and bringing into the child's experience those which contribute to his fullest development.

Every child in the country now has at hand thousands of these experiences which may be drawn from home, school, and community. The job of the health education supervisor is to bring these possibilities into the consciousness of the school administrator, teacher, and to help them become constructively critical of all the factors which come into the lives of their children.

It then becomes the task of the school to see that these factors function in a positive way, thus serving as basic material for the teaching of positive health principles. The child should be the center of such a program—the efforts of everyone concentrating (1) the development of favorable attitude basis, these resulting, (2) healthful activities on a voluntary basis, crystallizing into (3) health habits, which intelligently practiced are conducive to the highest development possible for each child in the school.

THE PREVENTION AND CONTROL OF THE COMMON CONTAGIOUS DISEASES AMONG SCHOOL CHILD- REN—ABSTRACT

PHILIP M. STIMSON, CORNELL MEDICAL SCHOOL, NEW YORK CITY

There are a number of questions about the common contagious diseases for which school health workers want and need to know the answers. These questions include: what constitutes exposure to disease; how long should an exposed child be isolated; when are the first evidences of the secondary cases; and what can be done to prevent a child from contracting these diseases. These questions are applied to diphtheria and scarlet fever, measles, whooping cough, chicken pox, mumps, and German measles. Stress is also laid on the subject of common colds. These are of special

importance in any campaign against the spread of common contagious diseases, first, because colds reduce resistance to the common contagious diseases, second, colds aggravate the severity of the contagious disease, and third, colds tend to obscure the diagnosis of the onset of several of these diseases. Hence, any intelligent campaign aimed at preventing the spread of these diseases, should be primarily directed against common colds.

All children should be immunized against diphtheria, scarlet fever, and smallpox. School health authorities should have records kept in their respective schools, which will show the percent of possible school attendance which is lost thru absence due to various causes, particularly due to respiratory infections, to contagion, and to quarantine. By a comparison of methods used with results obtained, standardization of the best methods can be worked out.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Tuesday, June 29, 1926

The first session of the Department of School Health and Physical Education was held on Tuesday, June 29, in Room No. 400, William Penn High School. The program was as follows:

THE SCHOOL PROGRAM IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION—Clark W. Hetherington, New York University, New York.

PUBLIC SCHOOL HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION—Grover W. Mueller, Special Assistant, Department of Physical Education, Philadelphia, Pa.

THE SPORTSMANSHIP BROTHERHOOD—Captain Percy R. Creed, Secretary, National Association The Sportsmanship Brotherhood, Inc., New York City.

A WORKING PLAN OF SPORTSMANSHIP—Daniel Chase, Chief, State Bureau of Physical Education, Albany, N. Y.

Agnes R. Wayman, Professor of Physical Education and Hygiene, Barnard College, New York City, was to speak on the subject Physical Education for the College Girl, but was unavoidably absent.

Thursday, July 1, 1926

On Thursday, July 1, the following program was presented:

HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS—Clifford J. Scott, Superintendent of Schools, East Orange, N. J.

TEACHING AND SUPERVISING HEALTH EDUCATION—Elma Rood, Teacher Training Staff, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.

THE PREVENTION AND CONTROL OF COMMON CONTAGIOUS DISEASES AMONG SCHOOL CHILDREN—Philip M. Stimson, M. D., Cornell Medical School, New York City.

Frankwood E. Williams, chairman, National Committee for Mental Hygiene, New York City, was to speak on the subject, "The Relation Between Recreational Activities and Mental Hygiene," but was not present owing to unavoidable circumstances which prevented his attendance.

Business meeting—A business session was held on Thursday, July 1. The following resolution presented by Sally Lucan Jean and seconded by Doctor Kahn was unanimously adopted:

Whereas the superintendent's section has declared that health is the first objective in education,

Be it resolved, that a larger and more important place be given this topic in the program of the National Education Association.

The officers elected for 1926-27 are:

President—Melville Stewart, State Supervisor of Physical Education, Charleston, W. Va.

Vice-president—Mary E. Gross, Director Department of Physical Education and Hygiene for Women, University of Washington, Seattle, Wash.

Secretary-treasurer—Florence D. Alden, Director Department of Physical Education, for Women, University of Oregon, Eugene, Ore.

Doctor Herbert R. Stolz, State Supervisor of Physical Education, Sacramento, Calif., was elected to the executive committee for four years in place of Francis N. Maxfield whose term expired.

The following representatives on the National Council of Education were elected:

Melville Stewart, State Supervisor of Physical Education, Charleston, W. Va., six years.

William Burdick, State Supervisor of Physical Education, 7 E. Mulberry Street, Baltimore, Md., four years.

Ethel Perrin, Associate Director, Health Education Division, American Child Health Association, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York City, N. Y., two years.

Department of Science Instruction

THE DEPARTMENT OF SCIENCE INSTRUCTION is an outgrowth of a State Department of Natural Science Teachers which was organized at a meeting of the Colorado State Teachers Association in 1894. See *Proceedings*, 1895: 951. It was first known as the Department of Natural Science Instruction.

The officers of the Department for the year 1926-27 are: *President*, Hanor D. Webb, Head of Chemical Department, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.; *Secretary*, Francis D. Curtis, Assistant Professor of Teaching of Science, School of Education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich. This Department meets once each year in June. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings*, as follows:

1895: 951-959	1902: 759-790	1908: 965-999	1914: 721-773	1920: 305-309
1896: 937-968	1903: 847-897	1909: 789-829	1915: 995-1029	1921: 663-667
1897: 916-959	1904: 843-897	1910: 949-969	1916: 699-751	1922: 1239-1267
1898: 959-985	1905: 781-827	1911: 939-993	1917: 535-557	1923: 843-861
1899: 1097-1118	1906: 719	1912: 1153-1195	1918: 295	1924: 753-775
1900: 592-609	1907: 951-959	1913: 695-717	1919: 289	1925: 598-609
1901: 771-803				

NATURE STUDY AND CITIZENSHIP

ARTHUR NEWTON PACK, PRESIDENT OF THE AMERICAN NATURE ASSOCIATION, PRINCETON, N. J.

A PLAYGROUND equipped with every one of the fifty-seven varieties of swings, shutes, ladders, and lattices is a wonderful starting point for play. Yet unless there is direction to the play, boys and girls miss the best fun of all and perhaps ruin the playground to boot. One can not successfully make a baseball diamond out of a garden and still have flowers to enjoy and fresh peas to eat. Once upon a time there were so many miles of forests, ponds, and meadows that a thousand trees cut, a thousand flowers picked, a thousand birds and animals shot or trapped made an impression on the great playground of the out of doors too small to be noticed. Some have never learned how to use nature's gifts, and millions of people today still keep to the old destructive ideas as being the only form of true outdoor recreation.

But sentiment is changing, and nowadays in our schools we mix the study of forests and of forest destruction with geography and history, and make it a lesson task to write compositions on trees and the things which come from them; about birds and the insects which they eat. If only we do not forget that nature study is not exclusively a textbook science and that actual experience and contact is a better teacher than a classroom. It is fun to plant a tree. It is fun to hike into the woods, to find and catch a tree frog or a newt and watch him jump for flies. There are a thousand games, a thousand discoveries.

The boy and girl scouts and similar organizations are continually developing new ideas of nature in play; the summer camps are sounding an urgent call for leaders and counselors who have been trained to find constructive play in forms of nature along every trailside; but our public schools, nevertheless, have a great function to perform in connection with nature study as a preparation for effective citizenship.

What is this connection? I wish to suggest to you that it is two-fold.

1. Nature study engenders respect for public and private property, or in other words, the slogan now being widely adopted through the help of the General Federation of Women's Clubs, the American Automobile Association, and others—"Roadside Good Manners." Thoughtless destruction of flowering trees, shrubs, and wild flowers; the littering of beautiful spots chosen for camp or picnic with papers and refuse; the careless leaving of unextinguished camp fires; and, from all these causes, a callous attitude toward beauty and neatness, which permits highways to be shaded only by ugly and dangerous signboards—these are all contrary to the principles of good citizenship.

2. Nature study engenders participation in the active economic problems pertaining to natural resources, such as conservation of forests and water supplies, game protection, the importance of song birds in destroying insects, and that curious problem called the "balance of nature" which

governs the fitness and place of all living things as the truest example of a greater wisdom and gigantic plan.

So much for the need of nature study and its essential importance as a part of modern education. The question resolves itself into one of means and methods; and the surest means of helping the next generation to absorb these fundamental ideals is individual and personal leadership in school-room and playground, camp and field. To bring this about there must be active sources of practical inspiration; there must also be facilities for exchange of ideas and methods.

In the field of those two particular functions of good citizenship above referred to the American Nature Association operates. Organized to encourage public interest in nature, it numbers nearly 100,000 members whose contributions are used solely to carry on the work of supplying popular and scientifically correct nature articles through the newspapers and through its publication, *Nature Magazine*.

The American Nature Association was organized in the latter part of 1922 to publish the *Nature Magazine* and principally to stress inspirational help for nature teachers. As the association grew, the necessity of providing facilities for exchange of ideas and methods continuously confronted us. We wished to be able to render not merely an inspirational, but also a practical service to nature teachers; and, as we were unable to accomplish this with a purely editorial staff, we sought the aid of the American Nature Study Society whose publication—*The Nature Study Review*—had been merged with *Nature Magazine*. Anna Botsford Comstock of Cornell gave us much help and advice. Subsequently, with her inspiration in mind, the speaker made a trip across the continent, inquiring in educational circles as to how the American Nature Association could extend its usefulness in the nature study field. On the Atlantic Coast and in California alike he found that E. Laurence Palmer of Cornell seemed to be everywhere known and regarded as the coming leader in nature education. Accordingly, we subsequently arranged with Professor Palmer to associate himself with us and to continue the making of a survey of nature education which had already been started by the American Nature Study Society. We have already published and made available to nature leaders two sections of this survey in bulletin form. The information therein collected is most significant, and the survey is still being continued, actually at the request of the various cooperators who have themselves become so interested in the value of the results obtained.

On the completion of the survey next spring we shall publish a rather unique handbook for nature teachers and leaders, which will contain within its covers not only the complete survey of nature education in the public schools, above referred to, together with a survey of normal school and teachers college problems, but also a rather complete list of various helps to nature study. This list will comprise information covering a large number of national organizations who have helpful material, or conduct Nature Education work in some form or other. Their material will be

listed in brief form, and the address of the secretary of the organization will be given, thus enabling the teacher to have a reference book of real value. The same volume will also give in brief form a study of nature work in the organized camps and among groups such as the boy and girl scouts and so forth. Finally, one section will be devoted to an almanac or calendar of nature's more important events, prepared by Professor Palmer in form similar to that in which it now appears monthly in *Nature Magazine*.

Professor Palmer has been at work collecting his portion of the data for this publication for over a year, and to complete and render as practical as possible the results obtained, he will make a tour of the country this fall and winter under the auspices of the American Nature Association, attending teachers conventions and parents and teachers association meetings in New England, the middle Atlantic states, the south, middle west, and Pacific coast regions.

I should also like to mention at this time that the American Nature Association is undertaking in connection with the publication of color plates in *Nature Magazine*, the preparation of nature study leaflet material in the fields of birds, mammals, insects, and probably other fields as well. It will be possible for us to distribute colored leaflets with accompanying outline drawings similar to those which have been furnished in the past by the National Association of Audubon Societies, but in smaller size, at very low cost, because of the fact that the plates are paid for by the publication of *Nature Magazine*. Within the next year we thus expect to be able to publish leaflet material on seventy-two subjects. As far as our present plans go, these will comprise a set of twelve common insects—the plates of which appear in the July issue of *Nature Magazine*—twelve western birds, most of which have not heretofore been covered by any leaflets, and twelve mammals. The size of each individual picture is such that it can be cut out and pasted on the ordinary field notebook page such as that of the notebook issued by the Comstock Publishing Company. The description, or life history, appears upon the back of the colored plate, but can be copied by the child on the notebook page below the picture. This, we are informed, is a desirable plan from the point of view of making the child prepare his own notebook. The association will also furnish outline drawings to exactly match each color plate. These are for hand coloring by younger children. Suggestive questions and further material will appear on the back of the outline drawing for use by teachers or for copying by the child onto a second page of his notebook. The colored plates with accompanying outline drawings are being made available by the American Nature Association at less than one cent apiece.

The American Nature Association has also recently undertaken to a certain degree the preparation and distribution of educational nature motion pictures. We have not yet, however, been able to work out a plan for lending these to individual schools. During the winter season we have three lecturers connected with the association continuously in the field—William L. Finley, Guy C. Caldwell, and Howard H. Cleaves.

Motion pictures have also been used for educational purposes at the association's recent exhibit on Central Pier, Atlantic City, where continuous pictures have been shown with splendid results, judging by the number of teachers who have visited the exhibit with their classes. Other educational exhibits of this character have been maintained by the association at the convention of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association in Washington; at the Educational Exposition in New York; at the recent Outdoor Life Exhibition in Chicago; and at other places.

Through the American Tree Association, which is affiliated with the American Nature Association, there has been made available in the past year to teachers several publications having to do with trees and forestry. The most outstanding of these is the *Forestry Primer* which condenses into a few pages, illustrated with pen and ink cartoons, the whole story of forest destruction and forest use, with an outline of what forest conservation means. Over four hundred thousand copies of the *Forestry Primer* have been distributed during the last few months. The association hopes to get out in the near future a special school "project" edition of the *Forestry Primer*. Other publications of the American Tree Association include a free bulletin on town forests and their application to local conservation problems.

NATURE STUDY IN OPEN AIR SCHOOLS—ABSTRACT

JESSIE H. SICKELS, OPEN AIR SCHOOL, ROCHESTER, N. Y.

It is a self-evident fact that nature study is an essential part of the curriculum of every school, and if this is true of the normal school, how much more is it true of the school filled with children physically below par!

The children in open air schools are not sick enough to be in bed, nor yet well enough to be in a regular grade room. It is not difficult to be very sick; it is when one is half sick or half-way well that time hangs heavily about his shoulders, and he worries about his imaginary ills, or he becomes listless and indifferent to life and living. The problem of the open air teacher is to avoid just these conditions. A child in the open air school must become physically strong, and strongly health-minded. His mind must be kept so occupied that he has no time to worry, and his days so filled that he has no time to miss the violent athletic games which are forbidden him. The three R's fill a large place, but here is the opportunity for the teacher who loves the great outdoors to inculcate that same love into the souls of his pupils. Parents willingly cooperate in anything which tends to make for health and happiness of their children, there is less anxiety about "making the grade," and the teacher is practically free to make his own course of study.

Here too is an opportunity to drive home the lesson in democracy, nature is a great leveler. These children represent all classes, and nature affords

a common interest, a pleasant rivalry which unites them into the most wholesome kind of friendship. It is not unusual to see the bright, capable, intelligent child explaining insects to the timid, frightened child from a congested settlement district; for we find it true that those whose lives are spent far from the open fields fear and distrust the simple things of nature which are sources of pure delight to the more fortunate children.

In the open air school the relations between teacher and pupil become more intimate than anywhere else, thereby affording an excellent foundation whereby the child becomes acquainted with his own life-history. It is a very simple thing to tell a group of children that the eggs of that beautiful *Promethea* moth will probably not hatch, as there has been no male to fertilize the eggs. Is it immodest? No, it is just natural. Will those children ever make wrong use of knowledge thus gained, or pass it on in an unclean manner, or be betrayed into telling smutty stories? I doubt it. Their interest is not in the sex of those moths, but in their development through their different stages.

NATURE STUDY IN THE HAWAIIAN ISLANDS—ABSTRACT

EMMA DAVIS, TERRITORIAL NORMAL SCHOOL, HONOLULU, HAWAII

We have in the islands 240 schools, with 2181 teachers and 64,916 pupils. Sixty-five of the schools with 462 teachers and 9872 pupils are private institutions. The other 175 schools are public and have a total of 1719 teachers and 55,044 pupils. The nationality of the pupils is prevailingly Oriental as can be seen in the accompanying table.

Race	No. Pupils	Race	No. Pupils
Hawaiian	3,375	Chinese	5,273
Part-Hawaiian	5,596	Japanese	28,363
Anglo-Saxon	1,816	Korean	1,032
Spanish	315	Filipino	1,945
Portuguese	5,704	Others	582
Porto Rican	1,043		
		Total	55,044

Life in the Hawaiian Islands is essentially agricultural and rural. The production of cane sugar and pineapples constitutes the occupation, either directly or indirectly, of the major part of the population. The sugar and pineapple industries are owned and controlled by a very small proportion of the population and the bulk of the rural population is made up of plantation laborers, who live in the quarters called "plantation camps" that are provided for them by the plantation owners. The rural schools are the schools located in these camps for the most part. Relatively few of the rural schools are in localities independent of the plantations. I do not have the figures showing the proportion of enrolment in the rural and urban schools.

Nature study is on the program of all the public schools both rural and

city in grades 1 to 4 inclusive; agriculture is taught in grades 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9, and is elective in the high schools.

The private schools, also, include nature study in their courses and several offer agriculture in the junior and senior high schools.

While we have a rather comprehensive program of nature study we likewise have many serious obstacles to carrying out that program. Naturally there are in the Hawaiian Islands considerable numbers of what are sometimes spoken of as "tourist teachers"—those who come to spend a year sight-seeing. Personally I think their influence on the schools is ultimately wholly good. They bring in new ideas and new methods, and their experiences are usually wider than those of teachers born and educated in the islands. But they find themselves distinctly handicapped when they are expected to teach nature study. The plants and animals of their new environment are entirely unfamiliar to them; weather conditions are different; the rocks and soils may even be unlike those they have been accustomed to. Under such conditions the trained teacher turns at once to the literature dealing with the thing he is unacquainted with. In Hawaii the literature of the natural environment is disappointingly meager and so technical that the average teacher is unable to make use of it when he has access to it. Of the teachers native to the islands many are familiar with the materials which constitute the stuff of nature study but their knowledge is in most cases unorganized and is often shot with superstition. As I see it the greatest need of those who are to teach nature study is a book written expressly for the schools of the Hawaiian Islands and dealing with the material peculiar to that region. Nature study books are plentiful enough but none that I have seen are fitted to conditions in Hawaii. I am now engaged in collecting material which I hope to offer to the teachers of the Hawaiian Islands in printed form in the near future.

I must acknowledge indebtedness to the Bishop Museum in Honolulu, the various experiment stations and to the University of Hawaii for ready and courteous assistance at all times.

I have spoken of the differences between the flora and fauna of the islands and that of other parts of the United States. Let me mention some of the outstanding instances. I might enumerate the plants and animals that are the common forms there but to most of you their names would be of little interest. Instead I shall speak briefly of those which are common here which do not occur there. It is interesting to note that the only amphibians which are found are introduced frogs. True, I have seen one individual toad during my five years' stay but I have looked in vain for salamanders. There are no snakes of any kind, and no squirrels.

Naturally the trees are practically all different from the trees of the greater part of the United States, as are the smaller plant forms. I miss the delicate wild flowers that mark the early spring in the east. Indeed, the change of seasons with all the attendant variations of plant and animal life, and all the changing activities which accompany them is almost wholly lacking. Consequently the nature study program is very much the same throughout the year.

I would like to be able to report that provision is made for careful and adequate supervision of the nature work in all the schools of the islands but unfortunately we are in the same position as the majority of the schools in the United States. We lack the necessary funds. We do reach many of the schools through the normal school and we are gradually extending our service to teachers out in the field through the medium of late afternoon classes and correspondence. We hope in the near future to have an appropriation which will enable us to make personal visits to the schools to organize extension classes among the teachers. We expect also to have published a series of nature study leaflets for use in the schools.

Nature study is required of the students in the normal school who are training to be teachers in the primary grades. The work is offered in the junior year and is a three-hour course in both semesters. Emphasis is laid upon the methods of teaching nature study in the schools, the use of nature study materials and nature study literature. At present considerable attention must be had to giving the students an acquaintance with the subject-matter of nature study but we hope to more and more get away from that phase and to deal more with the problems of teaching. We try to impress upon the girls in training that whether they teach in a fishing village or on a sugar plantation their part in the nature study field is to help the children to understand and appreciate their environment.

Elementary agriculture, or school gardening is offered to the students in the normal school who elect to be teachers in the intermediate grades. There are also courses in agriculture for the students who will become vocational teachers. Much attention is given to school gardening throughout all the islands.

On the whole, Hawaii's nature study program compares very favorably with the programs of other parts of the United States.

NATURE STUDY AS I SEE IT—ABSTRACT

ANNA BOTSFORD COMSTOCK, PROFESSOR OF NATURE STUDY, CORNELL
UNIVERSITY, ITHACA, N. Y.

For a quarter of a century nature study has been a part of the curriculum in many schools; and now we are able to look over the field and see, at least in part, where this education in natural environments leads. It has many paths, and no one school with which we are acquainted has set the feet of its pupils marching along them all.

First, nature study leads the child to a realization of the value of truth. The first experiences he has in observing living things is a training in seeing the truth and in telling it.

In this day of frenzied hurry and speeding autos there is the path that leads to the quiet fields and woods, and thus introduces them to the companionship of the birds, the little animals, the plants, and the trees in which they will find quiet and rest.

One path leads to a true understanding of plant life, its adaptations, its struggles, and its means of success.

A branching path leads to the trees. There is something in a tree that appeals to those who understand it.

The study of animal life also has many bypaths. First of all there comes a knowledge of the adaptation of creatures to their environment. The study of animals in the circus or zoo creates paths that lead out to the geography of the world, from the arctic regions with its seals and bears to the tropic jungle with its lions and tigers and monkeys.

All the paths in the fields and woods will cultivate in the child an understanding of the laws of nature and the beauty of the universe. An appreciation of the beauty in the many pictures that nature paints for us everywhere is an asset to happiness, and to spiritual uplift. However, the path that leads to the stars most of all helps the growth of the spirit and widens the spiritual vision.

THE USE OF THE QUESTION IN GENERAL SCIENCE TEACHING

O. E. UNDERHILL, EDITOR AND MANAGER OF SCIENCE QUARTERLY, STATE
NORMAL SCHOOL, SALEM, MASS.

The question and answer method of presenting material is the most useful in the teaching of general science to pupils of junior high school age and younger. This type of teaching is the oldest known, but it still has its place for the development of new ideas through stimulating the pupil to original thinking. Its misuse is the using it solely as a means for determining the amount of factual knowledge retained by the pupil of some previously assigned lesson. The pupil should be led by means of question, from things about which he is familiar, to the new ideas. This familiarity may be gained in three ways: (1) experience; (2) demonstrations by teacher or pupils, or by laboratory work; (3) assigned reading.

By far the greater part of the questioning should be based on the pupil's everyday experience. The aim is to train the pupil to ask questions of himself, that is, he is taught to think. The scientific method of procedure is to gather facts, formulate a theory to explain these facts, and then test the theory with all other known facts. This is what we teach the child to do when we teach him to draw conclusions as to the principles and laws underlying his environment by a study of the environment. By this means the pupil is led to his own conclusions, rather than made to learn scientific theories and rules, a process which often becomes mere memory work, without any real thinking. This method applies to the problems of life as well as those of science classroom. The man who makes the most correct decisions based on the facts he has at hand makes the biggest success. We say he is a straight thinker.

While the major object is to teach the pupil to think straight, he is at the same time given certain information about his environment which will

be of use to him later in life either directly or through its cultural value, and through an appreciation of the part played by science in the development of our civilization.

Various points in the effective use of the question were illustrated by extracts from a series of dialogs between teacher and pupils written by Mr. Underhill which have been published in the *General Science Quarterly* from time to time during the past two years. In illustration of a lesson time, a model clock was demonstrated, which can be assembled before a class to show the principles involved.

THE PLACE OF CLASS EXPERIMENTS IN AN ELEMENTARY PHYSICS COURSE—ABSTRACT

N. HENRY BLACK, ASSISTANT PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, HARVARD UNIVERSITY, CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

By class experiments I mean lecture experiments or demonstration experiments as distinguished from individual laboratory experiments. What I have to say about physics instruction applies equally well to our elementary chemistry instruction in both schools and colleges. This sort of experimental work in which both teacher and student cooperate to develop the subject by solving some real problems together is not novel but in recent years has been crowded out by laboratory experiments, by numerical problems, and especially by the multiplicity of new topics demanding attention.

If one judged the present status of such work by the number of demonstration experiments which are described in our modern textbooks, we should conclude that the average physics teacher did at least 100 such experiments in the course of a year with apparatus which costs *in toto* from \$500 to \$1000. But from the reports of summer-school students, from survey reports, and from personal observation, I conclude that less than half this number of class experiments are attempted, that the high schools except in large cities lack equipment, and that the teachers are woefully lacking in the time and the experience needed to do this work successfully.

What can we do about it? First, urge the apparatus dealers to make better, more modern apparatus and scrap their obsolete stuff. Second, urge teachers to take account of stock, repair the broken apparatus when worthwhile, learn to use more effectively what apparatus they now have, and build up progressively their equipment. Third, urge our teachers colleges, schools of education, and the departments of education in our largest cities to offer training courses for science teachers in which to practice the technique of class experiments, to test out thoroughly new apparatus, and to learn the use of simple tools in the construction and repair of apparatus. Fourth, send our most promising science teachers abroad to study in Germany, France, and Switzerland what facilities such as storerooms, apparatus, and books are needed for effective class experiments and, what is most difficult to describe, to observe the art of using this apparatus.

My own experience and all the recent statistical studies in this field

show that class experiments are valuable and in fact necessary in our science teaching to arouse the pupil's interest, to keep the teacher alert, and to give science its rightful place in the school curriculum.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Tuesday, June 29, 1926

HANOR A. Webb, secretary of the Department, was unable to be present owing to sickness in his family, so C. E. Baer was elected secretary *pro tem*.

S. R. Powers elected chairman of the nominating committee.

Moved, seconded and carried that the officers for the coming year be instructed to bring in at the next meeting a plan for a more permanent form of organization for the Science Department.

S. R. Powers, reporting for the nominating committee, placed the following names in nomination:

President—Hanor A. Webb, Head of the Department of Chemistry, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.

Secretary—Francis D. Curtis, Assistant Professor of the Teaching of Science in the School of Education of the University of Michigan and Head of the Department of Science in the University High School at Ann Arbor, Michigan.

The report of the nominating committee was accepted, and no further nominations being made from the floor, the secretary was instructed to cast a unanimous ballot for the election of these officers.

The secretary then declared these officers elected.

Meeting adjourned at 4:20 P. M.

Department of Secondary School Principals

THE DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS was organized in Topeka, Kansas, in 1886 under the name of the Department of Secondary Instruction. See *Proceedings* 1887: 395. Anticipating the proposed merger of the National Association of Secondary School Principals with the National Education Association, the name of the Department has been changed to the Department of Secondary School Principals. The officers of the Department of Secondary School Principals for the year 1926-27 are: *President*, Charles Edwin Keyes, Principal, Oakland High School, Oakland, Calif.; *Vice-President*, Eugene Kile, Principal, High School, Oilton, Okla.; *Secretary*, Margaret Durkin, 1824 Pittston Avenue, Scranton, Pa. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1887: 395-442	1895:579-635	1903: 429-486	1911:555-657	1919: 195-204
1888: 403-433	1896:557-619	1904: 473-536	1912:663-765	1920: 209-230
1889: 499-533	1897:644-699	1905: 423-479	1913:469-499	1921: 667-678
1890: 615-655	1898:664-700	1906: 633-637	1914:445-488	1922: 1267-1293
1891: 617-687	1899:601-818	1907: 521-710	1915:723-753	1923: 861-880
1892: 332-373	1900:428-453	1908: 577-667	1916:517-574	1924: 775-802
1893: 177-242	1901:565-604	1909: 479-522	1917:253-284	1925: 450-477
1894: 743-794	1902:455-492	1910: 443-533	1918:177-189	

PRACTICAL PROCEDURE IN CHARACTER EDUCATION IN HIGH SCHOOLS—ABSTRACT

C. V. COURTER, PRINCIPAL, FLINT HIGH SCHOOL, FLINT, MICH.

THE PARAMOUNT problem in public school administration today is the acquiring of a technic for the development of moral character in the nation's future leaders. The waning influence of the typically over-indulgent American home and the bald fact that statistics show an army of 27,000,000 Protestant youth uninfluenced by any church indicate just how vital the problem is and makes its solution increasingly imperative.

It is the purpose of this paper to describe the very crude beginnings of character development technic in the field of high school administration. Character development as a school program requires the development in students of a state of mind appropriate to right conduct and the making habitual through the provision of proper living experiences a state of conduct appropriate to right ideals. The development of a mental state appropriate to right conduct is the work of the morale technician. The making habitual a state of conduct appropriate to right ideals is the real essence of character training. The former, however, is prerequisite to the latter.

In embarking upon a definite program of character development, therefore, the school administrator needs to proceed along four lines. First, he must develop a technic of morale control. In other words, he must apply scientific principles to the development of a mental state appropriate to right conduct. Second, he must formulate methods of disseminating moral concepts throughout his student body, which tested by the student in his school activities and found workable, become in the student's mind moral convictions. Third, he must furnish the student with practice in living types of experience that are real, not artificial, that present problems in group conduct that the student by his own efforts in cooperation with his fellows can at least partially solve and which appear to him desirable of solution. Fourth, he must provide a program of activities in which the student can make choices of conduct in keeping with his moral convictions.

The foregoing sketches briefly the viewpoint upon which a program of character development is being carried forward in the Flint high school. What follows describes the nature of our activities under the four heads just enumerated.

1. *As to the control of morale*—For character development group morale is of especial significance. It results from the fusion of individual mental states into a group mental state vastly different from the mental state of any individual in its group, but at the same time it exercises a powerful influence upon the individual mental state. Key individuals exercise disproportionate amounts of influence upon the group. Self becomes submerged. Individual effort becomes cooperative effort, the individual's determination to do his part culminates into a mass determination to carry through, individual understanding of self and self appreciation develop into

unity of understanding and mutuality of appreciation and sympathy, the individual's feeling of fitness for the task at hand gives rise to a sense of solidarity of strength and purpose in the group.

Certain measures may be taken in every school to promote morale. Such measures are:

1. Stimulation of pride in the school.
2. Arousing interest in morale among teachers.
3. Development of enthusiasm, cooperation, unity, and good fellowship.
4. Increasing school contentment of students by careful attention to adjusting the student to his level of ability through proper grouping.
5. Correction of bad influences in the school as ascertained from teachers and key students.
6. Association of the principal with community organizations to secure their support of the school's activities.
7. Relations with the press in complete cooperation with reporters to secure exploitation of incidents and facts helpful to morale and to prevent the publication of distorted facts harmful to the school.
8. Interaction of the student with the community.
9. Special attention to: a. Freshmen; b. Foreign born students; c. Negro students; and d. Personal problems of boys and girls by dean of boys and dean of girls.

It is absolutely essential that the student be in complete harmony with his school environment if the school is to have any measure of success in the training of his character. This is well illustrated by the following problem in moral control.

For a number of years the senior class had been given wide privileges and numerous concessions in the raising of funds for a three days trip to the Niagara Falls. This became the supreme interest and the one aim of all senior classes. It absorbed the energies, the best ability, and the leadership of the class. At the same time it was essentially a selfish project. The principal, therefore, with the approval of the majority of the faculty, as tactfully as possible, suggested to some of the leaders of the class that the practice ought to be discontinued.

About fifty percent of the class were disturbed. The principal realized that here was a mental state that is highly contagious. In certain individuals the instinct of constructiveness which had begun to function in elaborate planning of the organization of the class for the raising of funds and the anticipatory conduct of arrangements preceding and during the trip, was interrupted in its operation.

The difficulty is almost entirely the result of the interruption of the natural operation of basic instincts and the exercise of traits peculiar to adolescence. Such interruption of instincts naturally results in a discontented state and puts the individual seriously out of harmony with his environment.

The problem must be treated immediately to check the spread of the contagion. The principal called a meeting of the senior class at the earliest possible moment. In addressing the class, since so many strong instincts were affected, he must, to be effective, arouse other instincts in the class, and sublimate those instincts that have been denied satisfaction. In other words, the strong feelings that had been attached to the instincts already

operating must be fastened to a new object and the instincts allowed to continue operating toward satisfying new desires. If possible new instincts should be excited.

2. *The development of moral convictions*—Our problem is to present to the student the proper social concepts and allow him in contact with the opinion of his fellows and through his school experiences to formulate his own opinions. Our plan for doing this is the following:

The school is administered upon a six sixty-minute period day. Each student has four periods of class work per day, one period in the library or study hall and one period in which he alternates between the gymnasium and special activities. The special activities are organized into what we call a social arts department. Every student must be in an activity group of some kind in this department during his entire high school career. Each of these groups contain approximately fifty students. They meet every other day, giving three sixty-minute meeting periods one week and two periods the next week. Twenty minutes are devoted at each meeting of these groups to group discussion of moral topics. These topics are presented in what have come to be known as auditorium lessons.

One of these lessons is discussed by each group each week. The teacher plays no part in the discussion except to stimulate it. He offers no personal opinions. He knows the conclusions that the students are expected to formulate because he is supplied with these conclusions in advance. He seeks merely to guide the discussion toward the correct conclusions. A high order of team work results. The desire to be of service to the school develops rapidly and becomes practically universal.

Lessons are developed around a general topic for each semester. The range of topics for one semester will suffice to illustrate how the general topic for a semester is covered. The following are the separate topics discussed in the 10th grade, second semester, under the general head of "The student's relation to the school organization" (specific)

The student's contribution to the life of the school:

- | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1. In the classroom | 10. In the corridors |
| 2. At the games | 11. In the homeroom |
| 3. As a member of a team | 12. In special activities |
| 4. At the parties | 13. As a member of the Student Union |
| 5. In the assemblies | 14. As a member of a class |
| 6. In the study hall | 15. As a member of a club |
| 7. In the library | 16. In the 8th hour |
| 8. In the gymnasium | 17. At the inter-class sing |
| 9. In the cafeteria | 18. Before and after school |

There is a moral idea in each lesson which when brought to the surface by the student in discussing phases of his school life becomes to him his own idea. When it is held in common with his fellows it becomes a moral conviction.

Because this work has developed in the senior high school and has not yet found its way in the junior high schools of our city, it is, as yet, unsupported by the systematic teaching in the grades immediately below of

ideals of a more elemental nature. The emphasis in the senior high school is upon social ideals. My own conception of the nature of the ideals that should be taught in the junior high school in a fashion similar to what has been described is as follows:

7th grade—Ideals associated with one's physical and material welfare, covering such matters as health, safety, thrift, etc.

8th grade—Ideals associated with one's moral and spiritual welfare, covering such topics as honesty, truthfulness, industry, service, etc.

9th grade—Ideals associated with one's personal relations with other students, teachers, and adults, covering such items as helpfulness, courtesy, consideration, respect for age, etc.

3. Practice in living types of experience—Having given attention to adjusting the individual to his environment and maintaining him there in as complete harmony with his surroundings as possible, and having provided for his acquiring certain indispensable viewpoints and attitudes and a body of ideals, our next problem is to furnish him with experiences of a nature to give him practice in living. The high school must become a cooperative community of young Americans engaging in most of the activities of community life. It must be a real community in the fullest sense of the term with real community activities which it conducts and real community problems which it attempts to solve. The modern progressive high school is rapidly becoming such a community.

In keeping with this thought we have organized a student union as the basis upon which is built the community life of the school. Membership in this organization is voluntary. Nevertheless it is almost universal. To participate in any of the activities of the school outside the classroom the student must be a member of the student union. The dues are \$1 per semester. All activities are activities of the school community free to all members of the community. Thus the school community or student union member attends all athletic contests, school parties, plays, operettas, debates, etc. without charge. The school community is governed by a set of school officers and a council which in turn is divided into special commissions each having charge of some phase of the school community's activities. The council is made up of one representative from each group in the social arts department. The following are typical activities of the school community:

The conducting of assemblies, the maintenance of a system of corridor guards, the supervision of automobile parking and traffic on the school site, the direction of noon-day recreation, the sale of candy, hot-dogs, popcorn, the profits of which go into the school community's treasury, the control and supervision of social activities, etc.

There are certain vital principles that must be operative in this type of community activity:

1. The idea must prevail that allegiance to the school community is primary and class and club allegiance secondary.
2. The idea must prevail that all concessions are the property of the school community. When a special group sells anything at a football game for instance the group acts as agents for the student union.

3. Students must be allowed to solve their community problems with a minimum of direction from teachers.

4. There must be a teacher advisor for every undertaking and in charge of every group.

5. Students must be made to feel that the school is their school to make or mar. The teachers are their co-workers. The whole is a strictly cooperative enterprise.

6. A school bank is a necessity.

7. The annual receipts and disbursements of such a community organization may aggregate in a large school as much as \$50,000. First class business methods and excellent business management must prevail.

4. *Activities for training in conduct*—The setting up of a community organization for practice in living purposes does not in itself solve the problem of training all students in proper conduct. It furnishes the medium through which all individuals may gain certain community attitudes and to some individuals endowed with initiative and capacities for leadership, it furnishes avenues for the development of these abilities, but just as in the adult community, there are large numbers of people who play no active part in the community life so in the school community large numbers will normally be passive spectators. We need a plan, therefore, that systematically organizes as part of the required work of the school universal participation in activities designed to furnish training in conduct. To meet this phase of the total problem we have in the Flint high school activity groups organized in what for lack of a better term we have called the social arts department, mention of which has already been made. The thought behind the organization of these groups, since the purpose is training in conduct, is community service. The groups are self administrating. The teacher in charge of each group acts merely as advisor. The technic employed by the teacher is that of the successful executive secretary of community associations. A program of work, standing committees, an executive committee, special committees, committee reports, is the general method of work. The activities themselves are in the nature of school community projects all looking to the improvement of the life and tone of the community. The following indicate the nature of the groups and the projects they participate in:

There are two poster groups. These groups make posters advertising activities, promoting the theme of special weeks by appropriate slogans, etc.

There are four service groups, each performing some service such as the hall guard service, the traffic service, the library service, and miscellaneous service. These groups are also promotional groups.

There are four dramatic groups. These groups concern themselves with furnishing good school community entertainment.

THE PROBLEM OF INDIVIDUAL CAPACITIES—ABSTRACT

H. M. CORNING, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, TRINIDAD, COLO.

Within a comparatively few years our thinking along the lines of classifications and pupil progress has been completely changed. Formerly we grouped children largely by age and we required all of them to follow a course of study which we had devised for them. We congratulated ourselves upon the justice and the thoroughness of our procedure. Our school organization was sound, indeed, we argued, for all were treated alike. The fact that many children failed to be promoted only strengthened our confidence, for these fatalities proved that the standards of our schools were high and that we were vigorously impartial in holding all children to those high standards.

Gradually, however, our calm was disturbed by the realization that the number of these failures was overwhelmingly large. The situation was carefully studied in many places and educators were amazed to learn that nearly half of the children were over age for their grade and that many dropped out of school each year because they were unable to keep up the pace. Almost simultaneously with this discovery came the realization that in every classroom there were some children who completed each day's assignments with no apparent effort. They led the group, but they accomplished this so easily that we began to fear that the tasks assigned them were not sufficiently difficult to require any real mental exertion.

Then came the rather general use of intelligence tests in our schools. From the results of these tests we learned that by nature children differ in capacity to learn. Some could learn but little, others had unusual capacities, while the majority were of average ability.

When this truth was established, education was confronted with the greatest challenge in its history. How shall we make the schools fit the child? How can we best accommodate these children of widely differing capacities?

It would be interesting, if time permitted, to review the various types of school organization which were presented to meet this challenge. To prevent the continuance of the lock-step type of procedure by making school organizations more flexible, many devices and types of reclassification were tried. The semi-annual promotion plan, the Cambridge plan, the Batavia plan, the Pueblo plan, the Dalton plan, the Winnetka plan, the special promotion plan, the many flexible grouping plans all were devised to meet the need for differential education. While no one will claim that any one of these plans fully and adequately provides for individual differences in capacity, all will agree that each of them is an improvement over the old type of classification. They all mark the happy tendency in modern education to consider the needs of the individual instead of the group.

Meritorious as all of these plans are, however, a weakness more or less common to all of them may be demonstrated. They all recognize individual differences in that they permit children to progress through the

schools at varying rates of speed. They operate upon the theory that some work slowly while others work rapidly. This is splendid, but does it go far enough? The use of intelligence tests has taught us that some work more rapidly than others and, furthermore, that some can ultimately learn more than others.

This paper argues, therefore, for a type of school organization which recognizes that some children by reason of native limitations can never complete successfully the normal course of study, while others are of such unusual capacity that they receive little stimulus and mental exertion by pursuing a curriculum which would be sufficiently difficult for children of average ability. If individual differences are to be adequately provided for we must do more than recognize that some children can progress more rapidly than others. We must provide a course of study for those of less than average ability which will be so limited in scope and extent that the less fortunate can successfully perform the daily tasks assigned them, and that with reasonable effort they can progress normally through the schools year after year. On the other hand, we must so enrich the curriculum for the brilliant students that a degree of effort is required of them which is commensurate, at least, with that required of the average and dull groups.

There should be no quarrel over the type of organization which will best serve as a medium for carrying on this differential education. Some will argue for individual instruction, others for ability grouping. The argument is unnecessary, however, since the type of organization is of secondary importance. The end should be to furnish differentiated courses of study, suited to the capacities of the individuals. It matters but little whether instruction in these courses be furnished to individuals or to groups that are homogeneous as to ability.

Because it is desired to present this paper from the standpoint of practical experience rather than from theory, the discussion which follows deals mainly with the ability grouping plan with differentiated courses of study. To avoid the theoretical also, it is necessary to refer to the experiences gained with this type of organization in the schools of Trinidad, Colorado. This is done with no thought of claiming that we have more skilfully handled the problem than have others. We are very mindful of the splendid work that has been done along this line elsewhere. We are keenly mindful, too, of imperfections in our plan. All we claim is that we are more definitely regarding the welfare of the individual than we did before our schools were reorganized.

This group is more interested in the work as applied to high school students. However, the operation of the plan through the grades so definitely changes the high school problem that it is necessary to refer briefly to the grade school reorganization.

The schools of Trinidad were reorganized four years ago with intelligence as the basis of all classifications. From the kindergarten through the high school there are three distinct tracks. Children were assigned

to these tracks on the basis of IQ, with mental age the basis of assignment to grades. The tracks are designated A, for the dull children, B, for the average children, and C, for the superior children. Although in theory the classifications are permanent, in practice they are not, since it is sometimes necessary to change students to higher classifications. The groupings are so flexible, however, that these transfers can be made with little difficulty. Generally, students who enter the first grade on the "A" track are promoted to the same division of the second grade and so on through.

The widely differentiated courses of study for these tracks were devised not according to anyone's theory but by the actual performance of the groups. The first year no courses of study were followed but teachers of "A" divisions were instructed to limit the work and progress as slowly as was necessary. The "C" division teachers with the aid of supervisors pushed their brilliant students rapidly and supplied additional material of many sorts by way of enrichments. As a result of this year of experimentation, tentative minimum essentials were set for work in the various divisions of each grade. Thus the minimum essentials of these courses, established by actual classroom procedure, provide work that dull children can do, and require sufficient additional material to keep the brilliant children busy in the performance of profitable tasks.

The limitation of "A" division work and the enrichment of "C" division requirements start in the first and continue through the eighth grades. Students completing the eighth grades are promoted to the high school but in varying degrees of preparedness for high school work. For example, in the eighth grade the "A" divisions in arithmetic complete the work ordinarily found in fifth and low sixth grade courses and are promoted to the high school on the completion of those simple requirements. The courses in the other subjects are similarly limited. On the other hand, the "C" divisions completely cover grade school arithmetic in the seventh grade and spend the time ordinarily given to arithmetic in the eighth grade studying general science. Their preparation in the other subjects is similarly broadened and enriched. The "B" divisions complete the usual course of study, but their work is more thorough and complete because they have not been obliged to wait for the dull ones nor to be constantly overshadowed by the brilliant ones.

From these three tracks, then, students are entering the Trinidad high school each year. Obviously, the high school must adjust its courses to the individual differences in ability and preparation.

THE PROBLEM OF INDIVIDUAL CAPACITIES—ABSTRACT

WILLIAM A. WETZEL, PRINCIPAL, SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL, TRENTON, N. J.

The problem of individual differences among secondary school pupils involves differences in aptitudes for different curriculums and differences in capacity to master subject-matter in the same curriculum.

The solution of the problem of differences in aptitudes for different

curriculum is limited partly by the educational facilities furnished by the community.

The problem of differences in capacity to master subject-matter in the same curriculum confronts every administrator regardless of the character or the number of curriculums offered.

The solution of this problem is theoretically simple, if one will take the trouble to resolve the problem into its elements.

The first step is to get a measure of differences in ability to master subject matter. Since a book is the fundamental tool of instruction, it seems reasonable to suppose that a measure of reading ability is a good index to differences in capacity to master subject matter in the same curriculum. In the Trenton senior high school, the correlation between reading ability coefficients and academic ratings was found to be slightly higher than the correlation between I. Q.'s and academic ratings. The chief advantages of reading ability coefficients are that they are easily determined and can be openly used.

The second step in the solution of this problem is to arrange the course of study so as to make a differentiation according to ability possible. Teachers have been too apt to think that the solution of the problem of varying capacities begins with homogeneous grouping. Variation of work is possible even without homogeneous grouping, provided the course of study outlines such variation:

The third step is to evaluate the parts of the course of study in terms of scores, so that progress in the achievement of the course of study may be readily measured.

The fourth step is to place the rating of the pupils on a scientific basis, so that pupils themselves can see the relation between their ratings and their achievements.

Finally a plan must be provided by which pupils will be inspired to their best efforts.

The ratio between accomplishment and capacity becomes a measure of effort, best only when accomplishment and capacity are stated with some degree of scientific accuracy. When this ratio is unity, the pupil is making normal effort. It is possible to plot these ratios graphically, so that pupils may readily find their own effort rating. Such an effort chart has been used to advantage in the Trenton senior high school.

The problem of differences in capacity involves not only an adjustment by which pupils with low capacity may "get by," but also an adjustment by which pupils of high capacity may be held to high attainment.

The public school has too long been a device to educate all to the common level of mediocrity.

THE INDIVIDUAL METHOD

A. J. STODDARD, SUPERINTENDENT, BRONXVILLE PUBLIC SCHOOLS
BRONXVILLE, N. Y.

Upon what fundamental principle is the individual method based?—A generation ago we knew that boys and girls differed widely in ability. Today, we realize, as a result of accurate measurement, just how wide is this variation. Among high school students of the same chronological age it is not at all unusual to find a range of six years in ability to acquire subject-matter. To complicate the matter further the same student often varies considerably in his ability among the different subjects. The individual method is based upon the fundamental principle that time of learning, on the one hand, and amount or quality of learning, on the other, cannot both be made constants for a group of high school students. The class method makes time the constant for most of the students and necessarily varies amount and quality. If this variation were in addition to the minimum that should be required of all and did not result in "part-learning" it would not be so objectionable. Moreover, this process of adjusting learning to varying ability is based upon the theory that each student will partake of what goes on in the class according to his ability, which is not borne out by the facts. The individual method chooses the minimum amount or quality of learning as the constant for all, letting time be the variable. Under this plan, adjustment of additional requirements beyond the minimum essentials of the subject are made according to varying ability and not left to chance absorption.

What is the essential difference between the operation of the individual and class methods?—The essential feature of the individual method is that of the individual and personal check-up of each and every student. Even though he may study with a group, or acquire some of his facts, knowledge or skills from class conference or otherwise, the testing of what he has attained is an individual matter.

The essential feature of the class method, as it is generally used, is the class recitation. The following criticisms can be made legitimately of the usual class recitation:

1. As a testing device the recitation is inefficient because of lack of time to test adequately what every individual student has learned. Usually the students tested are those that didn't need the testing. Testing the class as a whole has very little value. Moreover, testing in recitation provides little opportunity to remedy difficulties as revealed by the testing because this must be done individually if done efficiently.

2. As a teaching device the class recitation is inefficient. It is based upon a child's acquiring knowledge through listening as a member of a group. We usually have no assurance that an individual student is giving attention as a member of a group—that he is "tuned in" to what is being broadcasted by either the teacher or a fellow-student. Education is in proportion to the amount of effort or energy that is expended by the learner and the best assurance that effort is being expended by the learner comes from his doing something himself.

Education is a matter of growth from within and does not come through a "pouring into" process.

3. The value that is claimed for the usual class discussion is not as great as it is said to be. Usually but a few take part in the discussion and it is so mixed with testing that but little is gained from it. Much of our class discussion under the Class Method is what it has been characterized, "Forensic exchanges of ignorant opinion"! One is led, frequently to doubt the forensic part! Whatever value there might be in class discussions is preserved in the group or class conferences that are held under the individual method.

What is the relationship of the pupil to his work under the individual method?—Under the individual method every attempt is made to throw more responsibility onto the student and to make him feel that his school work is his and not the teacher's job. A pupil soon finds out that unless he puts forth all the effort of which he is capable he makes very little progress. Unless he does his work day by day he does not succeed, but he is not brought face to face with the fact in just the same direct way and as constantly as he is under the individual method. If the schools of America can bring boys and girls to a realization that each one of them is responsible for his own progress and success, that unless he does his work day by day he will find his next day's tasks "staring him in the face," that no one else will do his work for him, and that he must actually complete one task before he goes on to another, perhaps the biggest lessons of all will have been taught.

What is the function of the teacher under the individual method?—The individual method makes the progress of each and every student the measure of the efficiency of the work of the classroom. It changes the teaching process from that of pouring education into the student to that of providing a classroom situation and other materials that are favorable to the best learning on the part of the student. Thus the teaching becomes a means to learning by the student, which is the end of all the process. It recognizes the principle that education is dependent not so much on how much the teacher does or says but how much the teacher can get the student to do that is worthwhile. The student gets his own education—it is not given to him—which is more nearly in accordance with life as he will meet it.

How is the progress of the pupil determined and what is the function of testing?—According to the individual method as it is used in Bronxville, subject-matter is divided into its larger parts constituting "goals" or "objectives." Assignments are written, covering these goals or objectives. Different parts of the assignment are given one or more "unit" values. A "unit" is the part of an assignment that would be accomplished in the normal amount of time on that subject in a day by a normal pupil. When the student has completed an assignment he is given "practice tests" which are diagnostic in nature. These tests are corrected by the student according to answer sheets that are so keyed as to indicate what he is to study if he has not fully completed the part of the assignment covered by the test, or are reviewed with the teacher who points out or assigns what

further work must be done, as revealed by the test. He may take several different forms of practice tests on a particular part of the assignment before he completes it, although usually he takes a succeeding test over only the part that he missed on the preceding test. After the teacher and student are convinced that the student has qualified himself for the final test over the assignment, it is given to him. Just as with the practice tests, the whole or parts of the final test may have to be taken several times. Whenever the final test is passed completely, the student is given the next assignment in the subject. One subject is not made to carry any other subject and a student will progress in one subject as rapidly as he can if he does not slight his other subjects as far as proportion of time is concerned. If he does get behind schedule in a subject he is required to give it special time at the close of the day.

What personal contact has the pupil with the teacher under the method?—During the time that the student is progressing through the assignment he may have one or more personal conferences with the teacher. This device of a personal conference has proved one of the most valuable in use with the method. The student seeks the conference and the teacher talks over with him his problems, difficulties, and progress. Also, the personal conference offers excellent opportunity to test the student on what he has accomplished. It affords the teacher an opportunity to give the student an appreciation for the subject that is not possible in the broadcasting class method.

Do the class and the teacher meet together?—Class conferences are held at least twice a week in each subject, and may be held oftener if needed. These conferences are quite different from the usual class recitation. All testing is omitted because it has been done so much more efficiently through the method outlined above. They offer opportunity for review and summarizing and are used extensively for that purpose. Also they are used for special reports, special discussions, oral English, and group matters that are of especial interest to the whole group and in which the whole group can participate. They are often economically employed for the purpose of anticipating processes that are to be involved in future assignments. It is during these conferences that purposes may be initiated and projects carried on, giving rise to social values that might be lost during the more individual work on assignments.

How does the pupil's school day differ under this method?—According to the plan, students pass from one laboratory (a room where a pupil studies) to another at will, the only exception to this being when a particular room is in use for a conference or is filled to capacity. A student may stay as long as he wishes in a particular laboratory, with the exception that he must meet his class conferences when they occur. Of course, the student is guided in all of these matters. Our students have shown surprising progress in their ability to plan efficiently their day's work.

What means are employed to keep track of the use of a pupil's time and his progress?—Each pupil has a time card on which he plans his work at

the beginning of each day. On this card he records the use of his time during the day, indicating where he studied each subject and how much time he put on it. His progress is recorded on a graph card which shows accurately to anyone just what has been accomplished. The method does not necessitate any extensive or complicated machinery but is quite simple in its operation. The use of the time card enables the teacher to help the student grow in the use of his time and also to direct the use of his time if that is necessary.

What phase of the use of the individual method sometimes causes students and parents to object to it?—It will be noted that a student is required to complete one assignment before he goes on to another—not just “pass.” This causes the progress of many of the students to seem to be quite a little bit slower than under the class method. But, really, it is just the opposite. Because all pupils are reciting together in a class does not signify by any means that all of them are up to that point. The fact that it is necessary for a student to really master his subject-matter as he goes along is one of the greatest significance and importance. It is this requirement that meets with most objection on the part of many students and their parents.

They are so accustomed to the evils of the class method that they do not see them as such but rather look upon the attempt to correct these evils as constituting the only evil. Under the class method, the pupil sits with the same class day by day unless he fails at the end of the semester or the year. Only a small percent of the pupils fail and then only when conditions are very serious. It is difficult to get parents and pupils to realize that, even though they all stay together and appear to be together, they are widely apart—far more widely apart than if some of them were allowed to “pass” on to the next grade while others were to fail. Under the individual method a large number of the pupils seem to be “behind” and the parents of these pupils are constantly confronted with that fact. It is a source of discomfort to them and the issue is a daily one instead of once or twice a year. Parents and pupils must be slowly and patiently shown that when a pupil is doing the work of which he is capable there is no cause for complaint on the part of either parent or pupil and that it is only under such conditions that real progress is being made.

Under the requirement of completion of work, a student may not always be ready for regents’ or college board examinations when he or his parents think he should be. A student is certified as eligible for regents’ or college board examinations in a particular subject when he has completed all of the assignments that make up that subject. While it may take many students a longer time to get ready for their particular examinations, the records they make are higher, and the mortality lower.

What are the principal problems that confront us in the use of the method?—The direct problem that has caused most of our work and study up to date has been that of the assignment. There is still a tendency for the assignments to be too complicated and to require as a minimum for all

what should be the maximum for many. In other words, our assignments should require the minimum essentials for all with enriched and extended requirements for those that are capable of doing more. The individual method will not function really until both the rate of progress and the subject-matter required is adjusted to each individual's capacity. We are not interested in students completing their high school courses in less than four years, but we are attempting to get each pupil to work more nearly to his capacity.

Perhaps the biggest problem under the individual method is the biggest one under the class method—that of getting boys and girls to work each day according to their capacity. Under the individual method this problem absolutely must be solved or the method will fail to receive the support that it should. When it is evident to all that the student is making no progress something must be done about it. Under the class method this student could be “failed” but under the individual method something must be done, either to get the student to do what he is capable of doing, or, if he is already doing that, to adjust curriculum materials to him so that he can make progress. The individual method makes it possible for us to deal directly with the fundamental problems that confront boys and girls in their development.

After using the individual method for three years what are some of the results that are being attained?—Most of our students are studying harder and more earnestly than before. It is too early to tell definitely whether or not they are learning more than before, although results so far are encouraging. There is no question but that many of our students are growing in their ability to plan their own time efficiently and in their willingness and desire to assume responsibility for their work. Both our students and our teachers, because of the assignments, know more definitely where they are going than they did before. Students work constantly with their subject purposes in mind—in fact, they cannot do their work unless they keep their purposes in mind, constantly. Teachers plan their work more carefully than ever before and know more about what each student is accomplishing. The teachers are beginning to assume, as the measure of the effectiveness of the work, the progress that each student makes—that is, how far he goes from where he is. The question is not so much as to where he is but as to how far he gets from there.

It is surprising to learn that there is an immense, untapped source of motivation in the acquiring of facts, knowledge, and skills if the task is clearly, definitely and concisely set before the student in terms that he is able to understand and within the reaches of his ability to master. A great deal of our necessity for motivation of our school work has come about from the procedure by which we expected the student to learn. We have been doing too much for the student and not expecting enough of him. It is surprising how quickly he demonstrates that he is eager and willing to accept responsibility if he is asked to assume it. From the kindergarten through college, boys and girls have been told instead of being allowed to do for themselves.

Department of Social Studies

THE DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL STUDIES was formerly the National Council for the Social Studies and was created as a Department of the National Education Association by the Board of Directors at the Indianapolis meeting of the Association in 1925. The officers of the Department of Social Studies for the year 1926-27 are: *President*, Bessie L. Pierce, Associate Professor of History, Iowa State University, Iowa City, Iowa; *Vice-president*, R. O. Hughes, Vice-Principal, Peabody High School, Pittsburgh, Pa.; *Secretary-Treasurer*, Edgar Dawson, Professor of History and Politics, Hunter College, New York City; *Corresponding Secretary*, Mary V. Carney, Teacher of History, Central High School, St. Paul, Minn.

MAKING THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES EFFECTIVE

ANNA L. LINGELBACH, PROFESSOR OF HISTORY, TEMPLE UNIVERSITY,
PHILADELPHIA, PA.

MY EXPERIENCE has been with three types of college students. For one year of the war I lectured to Bryn Mawr girls—probably as fine a group of young women intellectually as can be found in the country. Since then, at Temple University, I have come into contact with very different but no less interesting classes. In this great, live institution with its enrolment of over 10,000 students I have had on the one hand the students of teachers college, on the other, those of the school of commerce. The latter have been my especial problem. These many young men and few young women, studying finance, business administration, journalism, and kindred subjects, most of them working their way through college either wholly or in part, looked askance at history when it was introduced into the curriculum. The Bryn Mawr girl gives her instructor a sense of responsibility in training for leadership; the teacher, as a student, makes one feel the unlimited multiplication of one's best efforts when passed on to others, but the students of the school of commerce have constituted a peculiar challenge. To use their own terms, how could the social studies be sold to them?

I believe that the first value of the social studies lies in the orientation afforded through these subjects. History provides that orientation in regard to the past; geography, economics, sociology, and political science in regard to the present.

History is, indeed, as H. G. Wells has called it, "the great adventure of mankind." Ages, races, and nations, have played their part in human development; each has contributed toward our heritage of today. What Carlyle called "the mighty tide of thought and action" has been rolling on its majestic course. The details furnish the working material of the scholar; on the other hand the general laws of progress, the main lines of development, are what should concern the ordinary student, with limited time at his disposal. Today it is scarcely necessary to add that in such a survey, political history should not be paramount. All the great streams of human progress should not be charted. Thousands of years lie between the rude drawing on the cavern walls of Spain and southern France and the masterpieces of Michaelangelo and Raphael, years that marked man's slow and painful evolution from the reindeer age to that of modern times. What is true of painting is just as true of architecture, religion, literature, commerce, the rise of universities, the growth of cities, the development of industry and the rise of nationality. All are part of man's past experience and each has contributed to the accumulated culture of today.

It is not enough, however, to give a student something of the historical background of the world in which he lives. The other social studies are

also essential to an understanding of the present. Geography explains the relationship between man and his environment. Economics teaches the process by which men make a living, whether individually or by group activity. Sociology deals with society as made up of interrelated groups, carrying on interdependent activities. Problems of population, immigrations, public health, poverty, and crime, even of education, come within the scope of this great subject. Finally political science deals with law, with government, with all the manifold activities of organized states and with the international relationships of these states.

Thus through the social sciences the student should understand clearly that the present has developed from the past through an unbroken line of historical continuity, and at the same time he should be brought into a closer and more conscious relationship with the community, the state, and the world within which he lives.

Knowledge is not enough however. Our students should not only assimilate culture, but should also be ready to make their own contributions to life. The nature of these contributions, and their value, can be determined largely by the teaching of the social studies.

Vocational efficiency should be increased through the linking up of one's particular work with life as a whole. This is not only true of the teacher, the minister, the doctor, and the lawyer, but also of those who work with their hands. As a college girl I heard Robert Collyer, who had been a blacksmith in his younger days, but had come to be one of the most famous preachers of his day, tell of the honest pride he still had in the wrought iron gates he had made half a century before, and that would be standing long after he was gone. On at least one student's mind an indelible impression was made of the dignity of labor.

More and more, however, is the average person finding that a normal day's work leaves a considerable margin of strength and leisure. The use of this surplus energy and time, we are trying to teach through the social studies.

There is a theory of education today that calls itself new, though it is as old as human history. It is that which insists upon self-expression and personal liberty regardless of the best interests of the community. This was the spirit of the man with the club in prehistoric days, that has found form in more recent years in the supreme egotism of Artzibashev's "Sanine," or of Nietzsche's "Superman."

There surely was never a time when the need was so great for a training in citizenship that will combine the highest happiness of the individual, with the highest good of the community. Not only is democratic government imperilled by stupid indifference and selfish greed, but our civilization itself is in danger. American institutions are not a mushroom growth. They are a precious heritage, the slow result of long and difficult struggles for freedom. Yet one of the most experienced leaders of reform in Philadelphia told me the other day that he believed it would be difficult to carry a closely contested election in Pennsylvania with the expenditure of less

than a quarter of a million dollars and that this would be honestly spent, most of it in hiring so-called watchers to get out the vote! We have to be urged, and even led to the polls! The Russian government of today is frankly founded on class warfare and the brutal merciless extermination not only of so-called capitalists but of intellectuals as well, for, according to some of their leaders, intellectual supremacy is just as dangerous to the proletariat as is the capitalistic. Yet a distinguished European professor, a Communist leader, told me last summer that such extermination is a necessary step in the progress of civilization! Millions of lives were sacrificed in a so-called attempt to make the world safe for democracy. Yet one European nation after another has been establishing dictatorships. Even France has scarcely veiled her demand for a strong man. Selfishness, indifference, and ignorance are everywhere the foes of democracy. Too often it has become a choice between despotism and misgovernment. Meanwhile few Americans return from Italy without praise for Mussolini. Why?

American educators have gathered here this week from the entire nation to discuss our public school system and all possible means for its betterment, yet the current issue of one of our magazines has a leading article on "New Horrors in Warfare," that includes in its discussion, not only the perils of the submarine and aviation, but also of the compounding of war gases that will make masks of no avail, and of the germ study for war uses that is going on night and day. Compare our own attempts to educate our young people with these hideous plans for their future destruction. Doesn't it make us feel that we may not be fully facing our problems? Is it not plain that material things have too much prominence in life? That mechanical inventions, industrial exploitation, and commercial rivalries, have outrun the development of spiritual forces. We have multiplied our human contacts by overcrowding our cities and bringing together the peoples of the earth. Our papers tell us in never-ending editions of an outbreak in China yesterday, or of some French criticism of America, made a few hours ago. Meanwhile we are not taking enough trouble to get one another's viewpoint, to develop the basis for better understanding, to instil and motivate the ideals that will make for a higher type of individual responsibility.

I am therefore filled with a keen sense of responsibility as I face these students of mine in the school of commerce. Again and again they confess to me personally, a liking for history never experienced before. That is something to the good, but it is not enough. When they graduate from college will they carry with them the knowledge, the training, and the ideals that will make them good citizens? Will they take with them into the business or professional world the enthusiasm and the desires that will lead them to give their best?

The answers to these questions really lie with the teacher. If training for citizenship is the first duty of a democracy, then the best is none too good in the way of instruction. Money as spent is the finest type of insurance. It is the teacher who not only strikes the keynote of the classroom, but who also supplies much of the dynamic force that becomes trans-

mutated into the mental images and spiritual concepts of the student. The teacher of social studies becomes a creator in a way, by taking the dry dust of facts and breathing into them the breath of life.

Some of us are still convinced that teachers are born and not made, but we know that the born teacher is made better by training. Training not merely in pedagogy, if you please, but in general culture. Especially should the teacher of social studies not only specialize in one chosen field but also acquire as extensive a knowledge as possible of allied subjects. The teacher of history, for instance, should also know much of geography, and political science, and something at least of economics and sociology.

Next to the teacher in importance comes the printed materials. Whether this be textbook, illustrative sources, or collateral reading. In following out the theory that the past should be made to live again, I have had great difficulty in finding desirable textbooks. In one course I actually changed textbooks every year in the attempt to get what I wanted—that is good book making, accuracy, fairness, and proper emphasis, presented with life-like presentation. Some of the best collateral reading I have found in the Yale chronicles. Several of these I have used as texts, especially Farrand's *Fathers of the Constitution* and Corwin's *John Marshall*. Biography should have a large part in the teaching of the social studies. I have little sympathy with the recent tendency to besmirch and belittle great men. Let us not indulge in maudlin sentimentality. On the other hand let us admire and honor the noble traits that have led men onward in the march of human progress. Here again is the force of personality. Any young man is richer in experience, for instance after reading the life and letters of Walter Hines Page. The popularity that makes best sellers of biographies in recent years is cause for congratulation to those interested in social studies.

Knowledge is too apt to be bookish, cut and dried. Knowledge is of true value only when it is the tool of a trained mind and sound character and like other tools is only used effectively when it is used with a will.

People are slightly moved by knowledge. On the other hand feelings and emotions are the guiding forces of most of the action of mankind. Is it not a special function of the social studies to train these feelings and arouse these emotions?

Hugh Walpole has recently said that the present generation is too clever to believe in God, and too stupid to have heroes. For whatever of truth there may be in this statement the teacher of social studies is partially responsible. We have life itself as our subject-matter, life in all its varied forms of human activity and human relationship. Normal youth turns instinctively to energy, action, and vitality. Why give a stone when we can give bread? Why make of truth a poor drab creature when it has been vibrant and pulsating through the ages? The vanity box of a dancing girl of ancient Carthage, or the student life of Medieval Pans show the sameness of human nature yesterday and today. Self-sacrifice becomes a living presence in the person of a Livingstone or a Chinese Gordon; loyal devotion

to country in Abraham Lincoln; and enthusiasm for civic righteousness in Theodore Roosevelt.

It may be old fashioned to talk about faith and loyalty, devotion to duty, and courageous self-sacrifice. But these are the fundamentals of progress, the means by which the physical and material world has been dominated by the mental and spiritual in the past, and will have to be in the future. I believe that they can be taught through the social studies and that through these subjects we have today in the public schools the normal school and the college an extraordinary opportunity to teach the knowledge, to give the training, and to inculcate the ideals that develop the finest individual and community life.

MAKING THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES EFFECTIVE

EDGAR C. BYE, HEAD OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL STUDIES, HIGH
SCHOOL, COATESVILLE, PA.

I am going to address myself chiefly to the third of the trio of questions which have been proposed for our consideration today. As to the first, "How should the social studies benefit our pupils?" I may reply with the assertion which is so pregnant with meaning to every teacher, "I know the answer, but I can't say it." As to the second, "Are they doing what they ought?" I am willing to admit, for the sake of argument and in order that I may continue my speech, that they are not. *Mea culpa* is a healthy state of mind for a teacher to be in—when he is not in the classroom.

The third question, "How can they do their work better?" is a challenge. It is a challenge to everybody from the state superintendent down to the classroom teacher and all may contribute to its solution. I am going to suggest five ways in which I think the social studies may become more effective. If I seem to deal too largely with the problem of curriculum construction in what follows, it is because I am interested in this field as a student of education and because the day-by-day work of the classroom teacher is so vitally interrelated with the curriculum. A curriculum, like a constitution, should not be merely a legal or historic document, but a live thing made alive by the constructive daily use of it by teachers in meeting concrete situations. The Constitution of the United States is not just so many pages of fundamental law struck off by the Constitutional Convention, ratified by the states, and printed with notes in the back of the history books. It is that document as it has been constructively used by five generations of statesmen, and others.

My first suggestion is that we must have a more definite statement of objectives. This is no doubt a commonplace. It involves the first question on our program, to which I admitted I knew the answer. You know the answer, too. You know and I know what the social studies should do for our pupils, but we have been dodging the real difficulty too long by assuming omniscience.

We seem to be agreed that the ultimate object of the social studies is the development of social effectives; that is, of units in the social group who have a sense of responsibility for intelligent and adequate reactions to their social environment, in order that the environment may be progressively modified while the unit is itself in process of objective realization through self-expression. To quote Spencer, "The ultimate man will be one whose private requirements coincide with public ones. He will be that manner of man who, in spontaneously fulfilling his own nature, incidentally performs the functions of a social unit; yet is only enabled so to fulfil his own nature by all others doing the like."

This statement of ultimate aim means that the social studies curriculum must be of such a character that the boy or girl who has finished the course will be prepared to participate intelligently and adequately in the social relationships and activities of life. But we are still dealing in generalities. Here let us begin the descent to the concrete. What are the social relationships and activities of life? A classification of these will obviously furnish us with a set of secondary objectives. We may begin with the cardinal principles or Bonser or Bobbitt or make our own classification of the activities of man. If we make our own, we may restate our major objective more definitely as follows: Fitness to participate in (1) domestic activities, (2) vocational activities, (3) citizenship activities, (4) general social activities, (5) religious activities, (6) intellectual activities, (7) esthetic activities. We may now speak of the domestic objective, the vocational objective, the citizenship objective, the general social objective, the religious objective, the intellectual objective, and the esthetic objective. I shall not pause to defend this grouping, since I am not here trying to answer the question, "How should the social studies benefit our pupils?" but only attempting to suggest the need for a more careful analysis and a more precise statement of objectives.

Whatever classification of human activities we begin with, we must next realize that fitness to participate in each of these activities will result from the building up of certain appreciations, attitudes, habits, and skills. These appreciations, attitudes, habits, and skills can be built up through certain controlled experiences and the acquisition of certain knowledges which make these experiences intelligible. Our problem is then twofold: (1) What are the necessary appreciations, attitudes, habits, and skills in each field? (2) What are the experiences and knowledges which will contribute most effectively to building up these appreciations, attitudes, habits, and skills in children?

The solution for the first part of our problem must be arrived at through the cumulative efforts of state superintendents and supervisors, college professors and students of education, principals, and classroom teachers, pupils, and their parents. Much research is now going on. Professor Tryon in the May number of the *Historical Outlook* provides the latest summary for the high school. As the work proceeds, objectives must be stated and restated with increasing clearness not only by educational theorists but by

the classroom teacher for himself as he approaches each new year of work and each new day dedicated to the realization of some objectives, however vaguely discerned.

My second suggestion, dealing with the second part of the problem just stated, is that the materials of instruction must be selected to satisfy the objectives. Too often elaborate statements of objectives have been made and equally elaborate courses of study appended to them, but the courses have been based on tradition and have had little or no relation to the prefixed objectives. Professor Tryon, in the recent article already referred to, expresses a doubt whether this method of setting up specific objectives and then seeking subject-matter to satisfy them is practical and sees certain handicaps which he says, "seem unovercomable." However, the experience with this method now being gained by the various committees of the North Central Association which are using it will serve to demonstrate its practicability or impracticability. There can be little doubt that if the method should prove practical, the work of the social studies will be greatly improved by having materials definitely selected for the purpose of realizing objectives.

In the selection of materials, experiences should come first, and afterward such socially valuable information as may be needed to make the experiences intelligible and point the way to enlarged meanings and wider interests. In most curriculum making, the informational content, based upon tradition or adult notions of what the child ought to know, has been chosen first and the activities or experiences introduced as a teaching device to make the dose more palatable. In witness whereof, examine any of the recent history texts with their predigested chapters followed by lists of exercises, problems or activities. The experiences of pupils may consist in (1) participation in home, school, and community life, (2) the solution of problems, (3) discussion. The informational content may be acquired through (1) observation, (2) hearing, (3) reading. Since the social studies cannot make the total and only contribution to the realization of many of the objectives, other than strictly social studies material will, of course, have to be included in the social studies curriculum content.

Assuming that a method can be devised for selecting materials of instruction so that they will satisfy the objectives, the next step is to organize the materials in such a way that the organization will contribute to the same ends. This is my third suggestion. I believe that the organization of materials is no less important than their selection. My main point here is that the objectives should not be lost sight of when the work of organization begins. If our major objective is social fitness, and it can be analyzed into various types of fitness, each of which is to be developed through the acquisition of certain appreciations, attitudes, habits, and skills, which are the result of certain controlled experiences, supplemented by certain social valuable knowledges, then it follows that, in organizing these experiences and knowledges into a graded system, we must arrange our material so as to provide in each grade for an appropriate degree of progress toward

social fitness of the various types. As I see it, this means that formal organization along traditional subject lines, from the point of view of the specialists, will be inadequate. The historian, for example, organizes his material with a major objective in view, but his major objective is not the major objective of the social studies teacher. The historian has accomplished his purpose when he has achieved a faithful reconstruction of the past (perchance an interpretation). The social studies teacher has accomplished his purpose when he has contributed adequately to the training of a socially effective individual. If we are really aiming at this objective, and not at that of the subject specialist, how can we teach history as history, economics as economics or civics as a description of government or community? I am advocating, as you see, a unified social studies course.

The fourth necessity, if the social studies are to do their work better, is a teaching technic definitely designed to realize the objectives. Two points claim attention here. The first is that a qualitative as well as a quantitative difference in technic is necessary for children of varying mental capacities, whether they be grouped according to ability or not. It is not enough to select and organize subject-matter, on the basis of the interests and needs of children, so that it will tend to increase their social fitness, but the subject-matter must be taught so that various types of children of varying mental ages and degrees of social maturity will be accelerated along the proper paths for them toward the degree and kind of fitness of which they are capable. The second point is that the method must be adapted to the nature of the subject-matter being used, or to put it another way, the subject-matter must be so manipulated that the objectives will tend to be realized by the use of it. No particular method is here advocated as best. There are times for socialized recitations, projects, supervised study periods, lectures, textbook recitations, Dalton plans, laboratory methods, and all the rest. While the curriculum may suggest the best methods at certain points, here is where the classroom teacher has the greatest opportunity for creative work—a chance really to be an educator and not merely a time-serving holder of classes. In order to be creative the teacher must at no time lose sight of the ultimate objectives.

My fifth and final suggestion for improving the contribution of the social studies is that adequate methods need to be worked out for determining to what extent the objectives have been realized. In other words, we need tests and measures, formal and informal, which will show us objectively whether or not we have arrived, not merely at some goal, but at the goals toward which we were aiming. At present, no satisfactory answer can be given to the question, "Are the social studies doing what they ought?" because of the lack of such measures.

In short, to sum up, we do not know just how the social studies ought to benefit our pupils nor do we know whether they are doing it. We have been going forward on a great adventure of faith, trusting that the result will be "somehow good." Perhaps it has been, perhaps not. We hear much talk today about the sickness of society and salvaging civilization. Not

everyone is agreed that this is the best of all possible worlds nor even that, whatever may be wrong with Europe, the heart of the American people is sound. At least there is a difference of opinion on the subject. It has been said that the difference between learning golf and motoring is that at first in golf you hit nothing and in motoring you hit everything. It is hard to say which we have been doing in the social studies. The one thing we can be sure of is, that whether the teaching of the social studies has as yet made any appreciable contribution to civilization or not, there is unquestionably still a possibility of doing our work better. May I remind you that I have suggested five avenues toward improvement?

1. A more definite statement of objectives.
2. Selection of subject-matter to satisfy these objectives.
3. Organization of subject-matter so as to satisfy these objectives.
4. A teaching technic which will satisfy these objectives.
5. Adequate methods of determining whether the objectives have been satisfied.

My main point has been that the objectives must not be lost sight of at any point, either by the curriculum maker or by the classroom teacher. Work can be carried on simultaneously along all these avenues of improvement, the classroom teacher contributing creatively in his daily work and yearly planning.

If teaching is to be a profession, all of us must feel a responsibility, not merely for improving our teaching technic, but also for cooperating, within the limits of our several abilities and opportunities, in the general improvement of our field. This is the essence of the so-called "professional attitude," without which, on the part of teachers, the social studies can never make an effective contribution.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

The Department of Social Studies met in the Auditorium of the Philadelphia Normal School, Monday, June 28, 1926, at 2:15 P. M., with Vice-President R. O. Hughes in the chair. The program consisted of a series of discussions on the general theme, "Making the Contributions of the Social Studies Effective." The speakers were A. B. Meredith, State Commissioner of Education, Hartford, Conn.; Anna L. Lingelbach, Professor of History, Temple University, Philadelphia, Pa.; Principal Charles C. Tillinghast, Horace Mann School for Boys, New York City; and Edgar C. Bye, High School, Coatesville, Pa. Discussion following the addresses was opened by J. Lynn Barnard, State Director of Social Studies, Harrisburg, Pa. Since Dr. Meredith and Dr. Barnard spoke from brief notes, a report of their remarks cannot be given; but the papers read, or outlines thereof, of the other speakers appear herewith.

The officers of the Department for the current year, who serve in the same capacity for the National Council for the Social Studies, are as follows: *President*, Bessie L. Pierce, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa; *Vice-President*, R. O. Hughes, Vice-Principal, Peabody High School, Pittsburgh, Pa.; *Secretary-Treasurer*, Edgar Dawson, Hunter College, New York City; *Corresponding Secretary*, Mary V. Carney, Central High School, St. Paul, Minn.



Department of Superintendence

THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE—At the meeting of the National Teachers' Association in Harrisburg, Pa., 1865, the state and city superintendents present decided to form an organization, to be composed exclusively of those engaged in supervisory work in the schools.

This group decided to meet in Washington, D. C., in February, 1866, at which time the work of organizing was completed. The new organization was called the National Association of School Superintendents. Nine States and twenty cities were represented. The mayor of Washington gave the new organization a cordial welcome, and the members were received by President Johnson, who expressed great interest in their aims and purposes.

In 1870, the National Association of School Superintendents merged into the National Educational Association as a department. Following a change in the bylaws of the Association, adopted in July, 1921, the department was reorganized under a new constitution, with a full-time secretary. It publishes a report of its annual meeting, which appears also in the Association's Proceedings and a yearbook which is sent only to its members.

The officers of the Department for the year 1926-27 are: *President*, Randall J. Condon, Superintendent of Schools, Cincinnati, Ohio; *First Vice-President*, Frank W. Ballou, Superintendent of Schools, Washington, D. C.; *Second Vice-President*, David A. Ward, Superintendent of Schools, Wilmington, Del.; *Executive Secretary*, S. D. Shankland, 1201 16th St. N. W., Washington, D. C. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of Proceedings as follows:

1873: 244-271	1886: 335-353	1897: 195-317	1907: 145-329	1917: 661-853
1874: 297	1887: 511-538	1898: 303-489	1908: 129-329	1918: 473-685
1875: 291	1888: 515-547	1899: 251-380	1909: 159-232	1919: 483-675
1877: 253-261	1889: 613-617	1900: 183-297	1910: 143-307	1920: 407-537
1879: 223	1890: 367-545	1901: 189-349	1911: 161-331	1921: 679-851
1880: 235-237	1891: 379-527	1902: 151-306	1912: 329-499	1922: 1295-1465
1881: 252	1892: 559-745	1903: 139-301	1913: 99-355	1923: 881-1025
1882: 7-112	1894: 252-592	1904: 173-333	1914: 133-293	1924: 803-963
1884: 281-292	1895: 213-429	1905: 155-271	1915: 253-527	1925: 633-863
1885: 160-192	1896: 231-391	1906: 29-215	1916: 895-1099	

PLACING A WREATH ON THE TOMB OF THE UNKNOWN SOLDIER

FRANK W. BALLOU, PRESIDENT OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE
AND SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, WASHINGTON, D. C.

AS THE FIRST official act on the program of the fifty-sixth annual convention of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, this representative body of school superintendents of America has made this pilgrimage to the final resting place of the earthly tabernacle of our Unknown Soldier.

While the name of this soldier is unknown, he is, however, not a stranger to us. He is typical of that great body of young men who but a few years ago left our educational institutions to participate in the great World War fought on the battlefields of Europe in defense of those ideals of liberty, freedom, and honor for which this nation stands.

May this sacred spot in the hills of Virginia, overlooking the majestic Potomac and the capital of the nation in whose service this young man made the supreme sacrifice, ever be a patriotic shrine. May it inspire those who stand in its presence to that high sense of individual and civic responsibility which shall guarantee a democracy safe for the world, demonstrating to future generations that this youthful patriot has not died in vain.

By this simple service we would do honor to the Unknown Soldier and to the patriotic ideals which are forever identified with him. By this act of devotion we, the superintendents of the nation, would draw from this occasion renewed inspiration, courage, and strength for the great responsibility resting on us to so lead the public schools of the nation that its youth shall ever be prepared in peace or in war to defend the republic against all foes, whether within or without, to the end that this "government of the people, by the people, and for the people, shall not perish from the earth."

ADDRESS AT VESPER SERVICE

THE RIGHT REVEREND JAMES E. FREEMAN, BISHOP OF WASHINGTON

Dear friends, it is my practice always by way of preface, to send a word of greeting from the National Cathedral, to the great multitude scattered over the Atlantic sea-board and far out to the westward, and this afternoon I want to send my greetings, coupled with my earnest prayers, especially to those who are shut-in, to the sick who are scattered far and near, and who, somehow or other, I have come to recognize as part of the flock to whom I am sent; to the sorrowing, to those who are in the shadowland; may God soften and ease to them the blow that has fallen. As I am speaking this afternoon in this auditorium to the representatives of the public school system of America, representatives in the higher ranges of its administration, may I send to my fellow teachers—and I deem it a privilege to count myself one in their profession—over the length and breadth

of the land, fraternal greetings, not from the Bishop of Washington but from a fellow teacher who rejoices in the privilege that he may be counted among the teachers of his day and generation. I am confident that I am reflecting the sentiment, as I speak to the great unseen congregation, especially to the teachers who are hearing my voice, that I reflect the sentiment of this noble gathering here in this Memorial Continental Hall, when I say that every superintendent joins with me in sending fraternal and affectionate greetings to every teacher engaged in the public school system.

My dear friends in this hall today, it is an unusual privilege to come and speak to you, because I recognize that you represent one of the most potential agencies, not only in the United States, but one of the most potential agencies in the world. When I reflect that approximately 92 percent of all the children of the United States are in your care, when I realize that you are dealing with the plastic clay of youth and that your hands are fashioning not only the minds, but possibly the characters of our children, I am compelled to be deferential to you and I am bound to recognize that no agency in the United States, (I make no exception) carries a larger or weightier responsibility, and I venture to say carries it with more dignity, or with a greater sense of obligation than that which you represent as the heads of the public school system of this vast country of ours.

And so this afternoon, with the consciousness of what you are—at least, of what I think you are—indeed, what I know some of you to be, I am going to invite your attention to a passage in Holy Writ that I think has as large a significance, to those who are confronted with as great a problem, as has ever been presented to mankind in the history of the world. The words of the text are in the twenty-second verse of the first chapter of the Gospel according to St. John: "Who art thou? What sayest thou of thyself? And he said, 'I am the voice of One.'"

It carries me back in thought to military days when, entering Camp Dix one night long after taps had been sounded, but fortunately for me in the care of an orderly of the commanding officer, suddenly I heard ring out on the still air of the night, the words: "Halt, who goes there?" We paused, and presently we stepped out of the car and were told in very precise language just how many paces we were to take and just exactly what we were expected to say, and not until the countersign had been given and assurances had been made to the humble sentry on his post, were we able to proceed to headquarters and find rest and repose.

The word addressed to John, the forerunner, has in it the elements of a challenge:—"Who art thou? What sayest thou of thyself?" It was a searching inquiry, for it was not one addressed to a man concerning his antecedents; it was not an inquiry concerning what he had or possessed, nor indeed what he represented in himself of authority. It was a query addressed to him concerning those qualities and gifts that guaranteed to him a place of hearing and a place of assurance among men. They had been curiously inquisitive of this man. He was unique among his kind. He was living a life quite apart from the common life of men. Even his dress was unlike that worn by his fellows. He had wrought strange

miracles, and his message had been with such power, notwithstanding the fact that it was severe to the point of being vituperative, that he had engaged at least the curiosity of the people, and they wanted to know, not who his parents were or in what place he had been born, but for what he himself stood. It is interesting to note, that when the inquiry was made of John, he made no reference to anything saving that which in his person he represented. He was the messenger of a messenger. He was the fore-runner of a Master. He was only a voice articulate with the message of Him who had sent him, and it was in the consciousness that he was a personality presided over and inspired and thrilled by another personality, that he was able to gain adherents to his cause and to win a unique and distinguished place among men.

The world is making a searching inquiry of every man and woman today, (and God help those who are unable to answer it, for whether we like it or not makes no difference, we are compelled to hear it) the inquiry addressed to you and to me, from the President down to the humblest citizen in this nation who is essaying the role of leadership, in the smallest or largest degree is, "Who art thou? What sayest thou of thyself?"

I address this query to you who are dealing in a very large way with the making of personality,—for if you are not concerned with the making of personality, you have missed your calling. I venture to suggest to you that the biggest job in the world is not legislation. We have too much of that right here in the city where you are seated. It is not the making of laws: we have too many of them disobeyed, altogether too many of them, and are losing more and more respect for laws and sometimes for law-makers. No, the big business of this country today, is not the manufacture of steel, although they call this the "age of steel," nor is it the throwing into space of our colossal buildings that outvie anything the world has ever known; nor is it in the extended transportation lines that fairly girdle the continent, nor again is it the great sea-going ships that cross trackless waters. The biggest job in the world, today—and if we are not attentive to it, all else will ultimately fail—is the making and developing of personality. And, let us be very clear about it, personality while it may be cultivated and enriched through education, personality of the kind that you and I believe in—is personality that carries with it knowledge coupled with responsibility, and no man carries knowledge with a high sense of responsibility, who lacks moral courage born of moral character. It is unthinkable that a man shall, through education or culture or refinement alone, become a capable, an efficient, and a useful citizen of the state, unless behind it, directing, impelling, controlling and inspiring it, resides a strong and stable personality.

Who were the outstanding men and women of the late war? They may be numbered upon the fingers of one hand. I particularize only two, one a man, the other a woman. Their names leap to your lips without my uttering them, one of them a noble prince of the church, Cardinal Mercier, the great Cardinal of Belgium. The world thrilled to his utterances. He dared to withstand the hand of iron. He dared to rebuke, with all author-

ity and to guard with the robes of his sacred office the children committed to his pastoral care. What does he represent? Does he represent to our consciousness only the cardinal of a great church? Do we think of him in terms of scholarship? Do we think of him in terms of ecclesiastical power? No, no, he is the cardinal of all men, because he carries in his person, patents royal. Men looked upon him, as I did in Detroit, and see in the very lineaments of his face the clear evidence that upon his brow had been laid ordaining hands once pierced with nails. It is that kind of a personality that wins the confidence of all men. There is no classification for such a man. He belongs to the ages, to all races, and to all times. He is neither Catholic nor Protestant. He is the Vice-gerent of his Lord and Master, and carries the evidence of authority, nay, the imprimatur, not of a church alone, but of his sovereign Lord. Ask him, if you will, General Von Bising, "Who art thou? What sayest thou of thyself?" He makes no reference to his scarlet robe nor to the church of great power behind him, but with a consciousness of his highborn duty, he issues his ultimatum, and even the man of iron yields respect to him. There stands the man!

Turn to the woman. She too is in Belgium. I went to the very spot just outside the beautiful city of Brussels a year ago last June, drawn there by reverent curiosity, to stand, if but for an instant, in the place where Edith Cavell once stood. There she was led out, a lonely woman. Think of her, detached from home environment, shut off from all communication with her people, with only a gentle minister of the church in the gray dawning of the morning to give her the Blessed Sacrament. Can you imagine yourself writing on the fly leaf of your prayer book or service book, lines of assurance, nay, lines of triumph, and then walking all serenely forth to stand before the firing squad; there alone and unattended by loved ones, commending your soul like Him who was lifted upon the cross, unto the all-wise Father? That kind of personality is the kind that, like John's answers back to the inquirer when the question is asked, "Who art thou? What sayest thou of thyself?"—"I am the Voice of One."

It is interesting to discover, as we study the page of history, as we read the story of those great figures that focus human interest and about whom all periods revolve, that they were the incarnation of some mighty principle, the representative of some strong and noble personality. We need not go back to remote times, we need not think even in terms of the late war,—rather let us think who are the men and women to whom we yield homage today. Are they the weak, the flabby, the emasculated? Are they the men and women who lack conviction; are they those who seek to evade or circumvent law? Are they those who, meteor-like, for a while flash across the dark spaces, illuminating the night, only to pass out into utter darkness? Is it some bright, clever, adroit man of business, who, for a while dazzles even Wall Street, that wins the confidence of a community and ultimately the gratitude of an age? Tell me, superintendents of schools, are the teachers who are showy, flashy, picturesque in their presentation of the theme they have in hand, rather superficial even though clever, and yet who, in the pinch or in the testing time, lack stability, are they the ones upon whom

American education depends? Then, God save America. No, no, it is some one like my old superintendent in a public school in New York, far, far remote in time, now, one John D. Robinson. I can see him in 52d Street public school, I can hear his very voice articulate the superb sentences as he reads each morning to 1600 or more lads, never to be forgotten in all the after years, as he reads one of the matchless, classical portions of Holy Writ: I bow my head even now after the flight of forty years, as I recall the noble extempore prayers that fell from his lips as, like a brooding father, he literally prayed his boys into the Kingdom of his Lord and Master. I can think of him as I was sent to his room by my teacher, perhaps because of some dereliction and of the gentleness yet firmness of his touch as he attempted to mold and shape the plastic clay of my then youth. I carry in my personality today, literally, the marks of this splendid man, a man who could say in response to the query "Who art thou?" "I am not merely a superintendent of public schools; I am a personality, carrying the authority of a supreme Master. I am as the Voice of One." I am the living witness on the platform this afternoon of the continuing influence of a man charged with the work of education, who thought so much of his responsibility that he molded not only the mind but the character of his boys.

Charles Dickens says somewhere that that system of education is incomplete, which simply informs the head and the hand; that that form of education alone is comprehensive which recognizes and deals with the whole man, body, soul, and mind.

Do you see what I am attempting to lead up to as applied to your and my profession? For you and I, more than the world thinks, are comrades in arms, carrying a common responsibility, and I venture to say, out of thirty-two years' experience in the ministry, our professions are converging today as they have never converged before. What I am leading up to and preaching to myself as I preach to you is this: that the only warrants to real efficiency (and I think that is the term we conjure with today), the only guarantee of real efficiency in your profession and mine is to be found in this; that somehow, some way, however we may express it, we are literally ambassadors, carrying our authority, not so much from men as from the consciousness that we are as "the Voice of One."

Do you remember that superb statue of Phillips Brooks in Boston? It is a great conception. I am not so much interested in the figure of Brooks as I am in the fine imagination of the great artist. There he stands, the master of the pulpit of his age, with his superb figure, a veritable Apollo. It is a great portraiture of a very great and outstanding man. What the artist has wrought into that statue that caught my imagination is not the colossal figure of Brooks, but the figure behind him, just a bit elevated above the master preacher, with outstretched hand resting on his shoulder. There stands the man of Galilee, the world's central figure, its divinest man, its God in human form, its exemplar of all virtue, its Redeemer and Saviour. There behind the master stands the Supreme Master. That is the secret of the preacher's power. There is no power in the ministry apart from it. They are only jugglers with words; they are only bewildering

you with their fanciful conceits, who do not cherish in their persons something more than that which ordination by human hands confers, the consciousness that somehow they are ambassadors clothed with authority by the Supreme Master of men. That is the conception I bring to you. Is it worthwhile? I venture to tell you that all your mechanisms and all your modern improvements in education, so infinitely in advance of anything we knew in our boyhood or girlhood, will ultimately fail of their purpose, unless they are shot through and through with that which alone comes through personalities that are conscious of their high authority.

I have been exceedingly interested in conference with leading educators in the country in the past few months, men and women of unchallenged and outstanding distinction, to hear them express the conviction that they hold the teaching office as a sacred and not as a secular one. I think of you in terms of a ministry. Why not? What lower place would you occupy in the work of character building. You are the makers and molders, not merely of physique, not merely of mind, but of heart and of soul. I have been interested to find with what readiness educators are recognizing the place that religion plays in the whole scheme of education. As a matter of fact there is not a reflective man in public life in Washington who is not profoundly concerned just now about this question, namely, what are we going to do about fashioning the moral character of the future citizens of this country? Are we to educate them? Of course. Is knowledge to be so diversified and so widely spread that the whole level shall be lifted and we shall come to occupy a new place in the course of human history? Obviously so. Everything indicates it. The very mechanisms we deal with in our educational systems give evidence of the fact that we are progressive. Are we so progressive that we feel confident we are really registering advance, that we are really, with all our modern agencies and curricula, so developing the minds of our youth that we have no concern about tomorrow? If you are so thinking, then live in Washington for a few weeks and you will get another point-of-view. You will find that great leaders, from the President down, are thinking more deeply and less superficially than you are concerning these questions. More and more men in high office in the government are recognizing the force of what Mr. Coolidge said recently, namely, that "the government of a people never gets ahead of the religion of a people;" and again, that we "cannot substitute the authority of law for the virtue of man." You will discover, as you come to analyze this sentence, why certain laws now upon our statute books seem, for the while, to be inoperative, while men freely discuss whether they will obey them or not. You cannot superimpose a law upon a youth or upon an adult unless the youth or the adult has enough moral character to obey it, and my contention is, that the business of my office is not to discuss the merits of the law, but to see to it that in whatsoever capacity I may exercise my ministry, I so build the moral character of those committed to my care that they obey the law, whether they like it or not.

Now, the interesting thing that I commend to your thoughtful consideration is not what a bishop says, though he speaks with a modicum of author-

ity—but what great leaders of thought are saying. Only recently—and we still hear the echoes of the discussion—there was a great controversy on between science and religion. Well, that discussion is just about as old as the race, and the undiscriminating sometimes seem to feel that the very footings of the Christian faith are being shifted about at the pleasure of men, with their conceits of learning. Listen to what one of the acknowledged scientists, not only of America but of the world, has to say concerning the relation between science and religion. Says Professor Henry Fairfield Osborne, who, in his domain is unexcelled, “religion and science will unite to control the future of mankind.”

What a responsibility, my fellow teachers, rests on us, where science and the eternal word of God are joined together to secure the wholesome, the sweet, the enduring things of our civilization. Listen further to what he says. Concerning your particular sphere and function, he adds: “I am a strong advocate of restoring the teaching of religion to our public schools.” Now, note how he qualifies it: “Why not brand upon the minds and the hearts of our boys and girls such elemental imperatives as: Thou shalt not kill; thou shalt not steal; thou shalt not commit adultery; thou shalt not bear false witness against thy neighbor? Imperatives of all human experience.”

I wonder how much you agree with him? I will tell you how much I agree with him. I agree with him because there is a drift in our life today that is fraught with grave perils, and the man or woman who cannot with a reasonable gift of diagnosis see the drift and tendency in the life of our age and the perils it inevitably leads to, must be deaf, dumb, and blind, or like Rip Van Winkle, have been asleep for twenty years of time.

What say the great judges of this country concerning tendencies that I need not enumerate here, tendencies not to be refuted. Judge Harry Archibald, of the Juvenile Court of Los Angeles, California, says: “My observation leads me to believe that 95 percent of the youthful delinquency today can for the most part be blamed on bad home conditions,” and the conclusion of the article is, that in his own court in Los Angeles, the increase in juvenile crimes in one year was 23 percent.

I know, (let us hide our faces in shame) that the twentieth century home, in the main, is recreant to the business of making and molding moral and spiritual character. I know that certain modern tendencies, unnamed, have somehow or other largely swept out of existence the kind of mother that you and I knew in our youth. I am one of the old-fashioned kind, that believes that “no man is ever greater than his mother.” I always wish that that sentence might be written of the fathers as well as the mothers. With the abrogation of the old conventions, with the setting aside of the niceties of deportment, with what Agnes Repplier, one of the most brilliant woman writers in this country, calls: “the repeal of reticence”—you know what that means, at least you ought to know, being heads of schools—with the “passing up,” to use a common phrase that your lads use, of those habits and practices that you and I indulged in, and by which, please God, we profited some—with the growing independence in that kind of personal

liberty that issues in license, I tell you solemnly, my fellow teachers, there is a responsibility upon you, which if you do not exercise it, I see dark shadows on the future of this country.

I believe profoundly that in answer to the query that I addressed to you, "Who art thou? What sayest thou of thyself?" that you have to answer in something more than terms of education. You have to say that you have something plus knowledge. You have to say that you have something other than your scientific skill. You have to say that you have something besides your modern inventions and mechanisms for training the minds and the bodies of youth. You have to say that you have so much of moral character, sustained by a profound religious conviction, that your great conception of duty leads you to believe that the primary and not the secondary business of life is the molding and the shaping not only of minds, not only of bodies, but of souls; and unless you can see the emergence of the souls of the youths committed to your care, I care not what your genius as educators may be, you are playing false in the most critical time in human history, and if you are unresponding to your high and solemn obligations, you may wreck the civilization that lies ahead.

"Who art thou," O, Superintendent, teacher, man of affairs, who art thou? Not what is your wealth, what your antecedents, what your honors, but who art thou? I challenge you on the open highway of twentieth century life, "what sayest thou of thyself?" Shall we say as with one voice, representing many systems, many churches, but conscious the while of the sovereignty, the glorious sovereignty of Him whom we acknowledge as the world's Master, "I am but the voice of One. I am as the voice of one speaking, speaking in certain terms, with strong conviction in this age of uncertainty. Behind me resides the sovereign of my life. Here I stand. So help me God, I can do none other.

Back of the beating hammer
By which the steel is wrought,
Back of the workshop's clamor
The seeker may find the thought,
The thought that is ever master
Of iron and steam and steel,
That rises above disaster
And tramples it under heel.

Back of the motor's humming,
Back of the belts that sing,
Back of the hammer's drumming,
Back of the cranes that swing,
There is the eye that scans them,
Watching through stress and strain,
There is the mind that plans them,
Back of the brawn the brain.

Might of the roaring boiler,
Force of the engine's thrust,
Strength of the sweating toiler,
Greatly in these we trust,
But back of them stands the schemer,
The thinker who drives things through,
Back of the job the dreamer,
Who makes the dream come true."

God bless you, fellow teachers, I give you greetings in the name of Him who declared Himself to be the Way, the Truth and the Life.

ADDRESS OF WELCOME

MAJOR W. E. R. COVELL, ASSISTANT TO THE ENGINEER COMMISSIONER
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

Mr. President, members of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, ladies and gentlemen, it is an unexpected pleasure and privilege for me to be here this morning to welcome you to your capital city. I say "unexpected" because it was only last evening that I learned that two of our District Commissioners were ill, and that the third was required to appear before a congressional committee this morning on that all-important subject of traffic. I say "pleasure" because as a high-school student I have stood before you with trembling knees to receive some severe censure for some dereliction of my scholastic duties, while this morning my position is reversed and my opportunity arrives.

I say "privilege" because it is seldom that this national capital greets a group either officially or unofficially which, in numbers of members, in the equipment which you possess, in training and in the positions which you hold, geographically and professionally, is so enabled to pass on to the coming generations your impressions, gained by personal observation of the seat of that government of which this rising generation will soon form the most important part.

In spite, therefore, of the risk of needless repetition, I would like to suggest a word this morning concerning the government of this city, to impress upon you that this is your city, that its administrative officials are indirectly responsible to you and that they hold in trust for you the affairs of this city—they hold in trust the affairs of this city for you, as well as for those residents who happen to reside here temporarily or permanently. Way back in 1783 the Continental Congress was roughly treated by unpaid rebellious soldiers of the Continental army in Philadelphia. With this experience in mind, just four years later, the framers of our Constitution provided that the Federal Congress should have exclusive legislative power over such district as may become the seat of government of the United States. This Congress, therefore, elected by you, is our supreme governing body.

After experimenting with a mayor and later with a governor, Congress established a government of three commissioners and four years later made this form permanent. Three commissioners are appointed by the President of the United States with the consent of the Senate. Two must be residents of the District, and one, the engineer commissioner, must be an officer of the Corps of Engineers of the United States Army, representing the extensive federal interest in the whole affairs of this city. The engineer commissioner has charge of the public works. One of the two civilian commissioners has charge of the police and fire departments, and the other has charge of the remaining administrative functions of our government.

The same three commissioners form a Public Utilities Commission, which regulates the public utility companies of the District.

There are other bodies, largely federal, which have as their object some particular phase of the beautification or improvement of this city, but after all, that is the purpose of every official from the district commissioners down. We are going to make this city as nearly perfect as possible in beauty, in culture, in charm, in education, and in government, worthy in every respect of the nation whose government it houses. In doing this, we feel that we are carrying out your wishes and therefore look to you for constructive criticism and for support. If you believe, and I think you do believe, that this should be the finest capital in the world, in your hands, more than any others, the opportunity rests of giving the greatest assistance to the completion of this object.

In the name, therefore, of the Commissioners of the District of Columbia, I welcome you to your capital city, feeling that if this city can inspire you, you in turn will see that its future is inspired.

PRESENTATION OF GAVEL

RANDALL J. CONDON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS
CINCINNATI, OHIO

Mr. President, I noticed that when you came upon the platform this morning you were fully equipped in all respects except one. It seemed especially appropriate that a presiding officer should have the badge of office with which he can enforce his decisions and as he had forgotten that, it seemed that somebody else ought to remember it. Ohio being the state where presidents are made, or from which a number of them come, it seemed that we ought to, from that state, present to the president of this great Department the badge of his office, and as he taught for many years in Cincinnati, and was elected at the department meeting there, I decided it would be most appropriate that the gavel and block should be made in Cincinnati and presented from that city. Having decided that, it was easy to know where it should be turned, in the oldest high school west of the Alleghenies, and the school from which the Chief Justice of the United States graduated. Having decided that, I was somewhat in doubt as to the wood from which it should be made. I thought of Harriet Beecher

Stowe. I thought of Stephen Foster and the grocery store in Cincinnati where he worked while he was writing or preparing to write those wonderful songs, "Way Down on the Swanee River" and all those other songs. I thought of Audubon. I thought of Powers. I thought of Theodore Thomas, but I was not sure whether they had left any wood behind them or not, and if they had, I decided that there was only one place in the United States from which the wood should be obtained, and I wrote to Antioch College and asked them if they could let me have some wood associated with Horace Mann in his administration of that college, and they sent me the wood from which, Mr. President, this block and gavel have been turned by the pupils of Woodward High School.

When the Horace Mann home was burned in 1924 at Antioch College, in Yellow Springs, there were very few pieces of furniture saved. Among them was a beautiful four-poster bed that had been the personal possession of Horace Mann, and they sent me a part of the split wood from that bed and from that wood the base of this block is made and from the laboratory table that Horace Mann installed in that institution, they sent me the cherry from which this gavel and the base of the block are made. I present them to you, Mr. President, to use during the sessions of this Department, and retain as your personal possession, knowing that in your hands they will exemplify those things for which Horace Mann stood.

With pleasure we ask you to wield this gavel with justice and firmness and with devotion to the high ideals for which Horace Mann lived.

Dr. Ballou—Dr. Condon, fellow superintendents, it is the ambition of your president to so preside over the sessions of the Department that he shall exemplify, as the last speaker has, the high ideals of devotion to our common profession. I could wish for no better success than to hope that as your presiding officer, I shall fulfill my duties and responsibilities with the dignity, grace, and delight that Dr. Condon fulfilled his duty and obligations on this particular occasion. In that spirit, I accept this gavel with very great pleasure indeed.

THE OBJECTIVES OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

JOHN J. TIGERT, U. S. COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

It is understood that we have in mind in this discussion the first six grades of the school and are to suggest the desirable goals of instruction rather than the subject matter or curriculum content which should be employed. Nor do I believe that agreement can be reached as to means until educators have arrived at some working understanding of the ends. We are dealing with finalities, not with methods, materials, or workmen.

Recently, my attention was attracted to this apothegm on the cover of a little magazine, "Education is our only political, industrial, and individual safety. Outside of the Ark of Education, all is deluge." I took up my pencil and wrote: "And every creeping thing that creepeth upon the earth after its kind has crept into the Ark of Education." Verily, we have taken

every living thing into the schools—and a good many dead things besides language and fossils.

In preparation for this address, I began collecting from books and persons a catalog of objectives of elementary education. After gathering a few pages of these I threw the whole collection away, as I saw it would require a very large part of my allotted time to read or summarize these objectives. I began my task with the thought that the curriculum might be jammed full of all kinds of things, but, as many curriculum materials converge upon a single objective, the number of objectives could be reduced to a brief statement. In this I was mistaken. The Ark of Objectives is just as crowded as the Ark of the Curriculum, because one soon discovers that knowledge or skill in practically each branch of the curriculum is proclaimed by some enthusiast or reformer as one of the objectives, if not the chief objective of elementary education. We have witnessed the spectacles of educators and laymen competing to make their respective hobbies or vested interests the objectives of education.

Then there is a considerable company who will not permit the ashes of the old faculty psychology to rest in peace, but who persist in setting up some objective to correspond to each and every inherent capacity of the child. Those who realize that a sound educational philosophy must rest upon social welfare as much as upon individual development have begun the endless process of analyzing human experience to discover what the aims of education should be. Citizenship, culture, and character they declare to be glittering generalities, without meaning and without definition as objectives. The scientific analysis of human experience will undoubtedly be helpful when completed. The progress of this enterprise always recalls my experiences some twenty-five years ago in New York. On the sight-seeing excursions, the announcers would often indicate the site of a certain edifice which was to be used for public worship. "When completed," they would say, "it will compare in size and beauty with the greatest cathedrals of the Old World. During the past ten years, there have been fourteen men and one boy at work upon it. Tomorrow, there will be fifteen men. The boy will become of age."

When the scientific analysis of human experience is complete it will compare favorably with the greatest accomplishments of modern scientific endeavor, but in the meantime I fear that all of our boys will become of age. The social organization grows apace and human experience changes while the analysis is being made. There is danger, unless Mr. Bryan and the fundamentalists are right, that when this analysis of human experience is complete, man may have suffered psychological metamorphosis and evolved into another type of being which may require analysis before we can discover the objectives of education in a scientific manner. Meanwhile, the Ark of Education sails on, the taxpayer cries "Help," and the children perish in the deluge.

Let us assume that education involves the process of discovering natural laws and analyzing human experience, and culminates in a proper application of this knowledge so that man may derive the maximum of social and

individual welfare in his present environment. Let us assume likewise that social and individual welfare are consistent and correlative. Some one may arise to dispute these assumptions, particularly the latter. Undoubtedly, the progress of knowledge has transformed life on this planet. Change will continue and social adjustment will be a recurring problem. But we must not forget that the educational process will never function without regard for the individual child. Emphasis upon individual needs should parallel increasing attention to social welfare as an educational objective. All instruction presupposes certain inherent presentiments, preparation, intuition, and capacity in those who are taught; we can only teach what the individual is capable of learning and, in a sense, what he already knows. This principle of education is likewise a social law. Nations and peoples grow only along the lines of their racial aptitudes and social tendencies. Try to drive an individual or a nation along other lines and you are confronted with retardation, incapacity for improvement, and often rebellion.

If we make these assumptions with reference to the definition and the nature of education, can we not say we have enough knowledge, scientific and otherwise, regarding the boy and girl of today, the school of today, and our social problems of today, so postulate that there are a few general paths that elementary education should take and that there are certain objectives which require greater emphasis in the immediate future if we are to promote the welfare of the child and the nation more effectively? Perhaps we know enough to say that these few general pathways should converge upon a goal of fundamental importance in our stage of civilization.

The game of chess is an inexhaustible game. The moves, variations, and combinations on the chessboard are infinite. If every man, woman, and child, now alive, should begin to play out the variations and should live as long as Methuselah lived, the game of chess would not be exhausted. And yet, if you study the play of the masters, you will find that their games follow fixed lines of progress and there is much repetition and sameness in the openings and the continuation of the combinations. It is the "King's Pawn Opening," the "King's Bishop Gambit," the "Ruy Lopez," or some other recognized method of procedure that is employed by successful players. A scientific exhaustion of the game is impossible, but those who do best at it follow certain conventional lines of departure, based upon experience.

I believe that we have sufficient empirical knowledge today that enables us to point out certain objectives of elementary education that should be stressed at this time, without waiting until the possibilities of natural law and human experience are exhausted. If any of these paths lead us astray or others must be added, experience and increasing scientific analysis should enable us to detect them. And just as each of the various openings and gambits in the chess game attempts to bring about a characteristic relation of pieces and pawns from which an attack is made to checkmate the king, and thus a number of tentative objectives converge upon a single grand purpose, so it may be that we may venture to suggest that the several general objectives of education at this time are driving toward some supreme end of highest significance in the age in which we live.

If the objectives of elementary education could be established in this way, even tentatively, we would have a working basis upon which to construct a curriculum. All curriculum content could be tested in relation to these objectives, and those materials which were found to be most effective in promoting the ends desired, could be included. Materials unrelated to our objectives, or duplicating other materials more effective and already sufficient for the purpose, would then be eliminated from the curriculum. If some such practical device for testing curriculum methods is not soon adopted, pending the completion of a scientifically constructed curriculum which will require a long period of years, I fear that the public, the overburdened taxpayer or some one else, will rise up and take the matter in hand.

I believe that there is general agreement that health is a fundamental objective in the elementary schools. I am aware that the scientific curriculum makers will say: "Nobody knows what health is or how it should be taught." Strictly speaking, that may be true, but in our present understanding of social problems, health and health-teaching, do we not know enough to say that better health is something devoutly to be wished for, that it depends in large measure upon proper eating, drinking, sleeping, exercising, cleansing, breathing, protection from disease, correction of remediable defects, and certain other things upon which we are reasonably well agreed? Do we not know enough about health-teaching, at the present time, to say that it is useless to attempt to teach the philosophy or principles of hygiene to children in the elementary schools, but that successful health teaching depends very largely upon the formation of proper health habits among children of this age, and good health habits can be formed if we have systematic physical examination, periodic weighing and measuring, daily inspections, regular and careful supervision of exercise and play, complete records, and so on through the program that our present experience suggests? Furthermore, when we know that mental phenomena are somehow correlated with and organically conditioned upon health and bodily vigor, when we have reasonably accurate data with reference to the existence of physical defects among school children, when we know that one third of the men examined in the late war were found to be physically unfit for any kind of military service and one half unfit for unlimited service, and when we know that our nation suffers an annual economic loss due to preventable disease and death among wage-earners that is greater than our entire annual expenditure for all kinds of education, and when we have other information equally as significant with reference to social conditions, are we not safe in saying that our present knowledge of the conditions in the country, of health, and methods of teaching justify us in asserting that health should be made a fundamental objective in the philosophy of elementary education? I believe that we can answer all these questions very emphatically in the affirmative. We can then proceed practically in the light of present knowledge and needs, while the scientific analysis of health, methods of teaching, relation of mind and body, human

experience, and other related matters may continue from time to time to shed new light upon the problems involved.

Again, I think that there will be general agreement that we have sufficient knowledge of the problems involved to say that elementary education should aim very definitely to implant the fundamentals upon which depend the use of written and spoken language and numbers, and to instill the rudiments which are essential to efficient functioning, in a modern society, and which are likewise the basis upon which a broad superstructure of culture may be erected in later years. By all this, I have in mind the mastery of the vehicles of expression and intercommunication, a general grasp of the history, customs, and habits of the peoples who have created our civilization, including a beginning of discrimination with regard to contributions of art, music, science, and industry. I use the word "mastery" deliberately and with the implication that, due to the multiplicity of purposes now in vogue in the school program or for some other reason, we are not now thoroughly teaching the fundamentals. I am convinced that we shall do better if we strive for a few things and do them well than if we attempt much and master little or nothing.

I am aware that the curriculum-makers sometimes allude with pity or scorn to those so naive as to suggest such general purposes as I mention here. Possibly, of all the terms descriptive of the goals of education which have been weighed and found wanting by the surveyors of scientific knowledge in the field of educational aims, the term "culture" has been banned with the greatest finality.

I make bold to assert that we have sufficient general agreement as to what culture means, sufficient knowledge about how culture is imparted, and more than sufficient knowledge of the dearth of culture in this country at the present time to justify us in saying that it is a fundamental purpose in the scheme of the elementary school. The fact that so many people prefer "jazz" to music; the books of the hour, with their sordid appeal to sex and vulgarity, to literature; the trashy and salacious shows to drama, and similar predilections, indicate that we need a real invasion of culture. Illiteracy is such a serious tragedy that one hesitates to suggest that it could have any possible virtue, but a sampling of some of the popular literary pabulum that is now being swallowed by the American people would lead one to surmise that illiteracy may have some compensation and at least serve as a literary vaccination which renders one immune to mental pollution. It is recorded that the American people rejected as a free gift and our art galleries would not provide wall space for Whistler's portrait of his mother, which now hangs in Luxembourg Gallery in Paris, and is said to be valued at more than a million dollars. It is not pleasant or provocative of patriotism to dwell upon these things, but they certainly point clearly to the need of thorough injection of a broad and deep ground work of culture in the elementary school.

A third general purpose of the elementary school should be efficiency in both personal and social matters. I realize that the hair-splitting analysis

may condemn this objective as being almost as indefinite and vague as culture. But the mighty emphasis which has been developed in recent years upon learning by doing is indicative that we sense the fact, however indistinct the concept may be at the present time, that we need to give the boy or girl of the elementary school a better preparation to meet practical situations. We see the need of more hard work and the skills of action.

Of course, there is nothing vocational implied and, while the major effort toward vocational diagnosis should be postponed to the junior high school period, still, I believe that the elementary school has a distinct obligation in discovering and developing aptitudes and interests of a non-vocational character. It should at least begin to lay a foundation upon which vocational training may be later built. Likewise, economic efficiency (which is more than thrift), perseverance, industry, and the joy of effort belong here. Education is not simply the emancipation of the intellect, but it implies the liberation of the will, skill, and satisfaction in successful achievement. Consequently, our third objective supplements and correlates our second objective. Efficiency and culture should not be antagonistic; they are allies in our educational scheme. The "impractical scholar" has too long been a by-word in the world. One of the greatest scholars in a university I once attended tried to cut a plank to make a shelf. He wanted to shorten it two feet and went through two operations, cutting off one foot at each end. Good practical common sense and skill in action has sometimes been lost in scholarship. We are not inveighing against learning, but are pointing out that knowing much and doing well are not contradictory. In 1777, the Marquis de Lafayette, in a letter to a friend, wrote as follows: "I read; I study; I examine; I listen; I reflect; and out of all this I try to form an idea into which I put as much common sense as I can." To these words of the great Frenchman, I would like to add those of President Roosevelt, who in addressing the Department of Superintendence at the White House in 1908, said: "Let us show that we regard the position of the man who works with his hands as being ordinarily and in good faith as important and dignified and as worthy of consideration as that of business men or professional men. We need to have a certain readjustment of values in this country. Teach the boy and girl that their business is to earn their own livelihood; teach the boy that he is to be the home-maker; the girl that ultimately she is to be the home-keeper; that their work is the most important by far in all the land; that the work of the statesman, the writer, the captain of industry, and all the rest, is conditioned—first, upon the work that finds expression in the family, that supports the family. We have all of us often heard some good but unwise woman say 'I have worked hard; my daughter shan't work,' the poor woman not realizing that great though the curse of mere drudgery, of overwork, is, it is not so great as the curse of vapid idleness; and it does not make any difference whether that idleness is that of the hobo at one end of the scale, or the gilded youth at the other. Teach the boy and girl to work; then teach them more; teach them to build upon this as a foundation for the superstructure of the higher life."

Higher living implies culture and also implies character. Character education should certainly be a fundamental objective of the present-day elementary school. The horrible statistics of increasing homicides, divorces, and crime are shocking and alarming thoughtful persons. The number of homicides in the United States has trebled in the last twenty-five years. In twenty years we have had 170,000; of these, 34,000 have since died; 18,000 are still in prison, and 118,000 walk our streets free and unmolested. In 1921, we had 32,844 burglaries, 49,460 robberies, and 10,000 murders. In England and Wales during the same year, 211 robberies were reported to the police and less than 100 murders. In all of France there were presented for trial about 385 killings and 47 robberies. In 1870 in the United States there was one divorce for every eighteen marriages. Last year, there was one divorce for every eight marriages. The percentage of crime now reported among boys and girls of high school age by reputable authorities has become almost incredible and I refuse to give any further currency to the statistics on this and other shocking social conditions. We have enough to know that there has been a serious breakdown in character and integrity. No doubt, most of us will readily admit that the social need of character instruction is great, but the difficult problem here is how to teach it.

The evolution of purpose in education is traceable with tolerable ease. In ancient times, when citizenship was the right of a few and most men were slaves, or enjoyed only partial rights of citizenship, education was a luxury for a small group. This view was intensified in Europe with the renaissance of Greek and Roman culture, but when, after the Dark Ages, the Roman Church assumed the role of bringing order out of chaos as both a temporal and religious power, education became peculiarly the task of the Church and the prerogative of the priesthood. This idea persisted in America. Witness, for example, how largely the colleges of our country were religious in origin and purpose.

With the growth of democratic political ideas, education has become secular and not only the privilege of the many, but in the case of elementary education, a necessity which the state attempts to enforce upon all.

We have wisely separated the function of church and state, but, in avoiding the Scylla of political interference with religion, we have steered upon the Charybdis of state education without religion. It is doubtful if we can introduce religious instruction in the public school without interference with religious freedom, but we must find a way to produce character effectively. Just how we are to solve the problem is difficult to suggest. We are making studies at the present time. There are the various plans whereby children are dismissed from the school for religious instruction in the church of their choice, such as are in use at Gary, Indiana, Toledo, Ohio, and other places. Then, too, we are making considerable progress with moral instruction. The Character Education Institution has done a great deal to stimulate research in this field of character training and its efforts have resulted in the Iowa Plan. Moral instruction has been tried on a large scale in France and reports are that results are gratifying. The methods can be successfully evolved and lie outside the scope of this dis-

cussion, but we are stressing the obvious need of character as a primary purpose of the elementary school.

Sharp instruments are needed for surgical operations, but it is far more important that the instruments should be sterilized. Dull instruments that are foul are less dangerous than sharp ones. Modern society needs enlightenment, but it needs virtue also. An educated criminal is more dangerous than an ignorant one. Progress depends upon both knowledge and character. Amiel gives us the philosophy of this when he says: "There you have the two worlds: Christianity brings and preaches salvation by the conversion of the will, humanism by the emancipation of the mind. One attacks the heart, the other the brain. Both wish to enable man to reach his ideal. But the ideal differs, if not by its content, at least by the disposition of its content, by the predominance and sovereignty given to this for that inner power. For one, the mind is the organ of the soul; for the other, the soul is an inferior state of the mind; the one wishes to enlighten by making better, the other to make better by enlightening. It is the difference between Socrates and Jesus."

John Ruskin says: "The entire object of true education is to make people not merely do the right thing, but enjoy the right thing; not merely industrious, but to love industry; not merely learned, but to love knowledge; not merely pure, but to love purity; not merely just, but to hunger and thirst after justice."

We have offered four fundamental objectives as the end of elementary education—health, mastery of the fundamentals as a basis of culture, personal and social efficiency, and character. These objectives are not exhaustive, nor mutually exclusive. Any statement of aims is essentially overlapping, and, to some extent, artificial. Such terms as recreation, worthy home membership, proper use of leisure time, and other current phases all intermix as ends of education. Further, we do not pretend to have set down these four objectives in the order of importance.

Let us return, in conclusion, to our figure of the chess game. We have set out four general lines of departure for the elementary school, similar to the conventional openings in the chess game. Do these lines of attack, to be employed by the school, converge as do the openings in the chess game upon a major purpose?

We have traced the evolution of the purpose of the school. We have already hinted that the major objective of the school today is worthy citizenship. In the medieval period, it was service of the church. Today, a state-supported system of education implies a system devoted primarily to state service. Our four objectives converge upon the idea of good citizenship. The man in poor health cannot make the best citizen and may become a liability to the state; likewise, the illiterate, the ignorant, the inefficient, and the wrong-doer. In the age in which we live, citizenship is the primary function of the school. As the social organism develops, it may be something else at another time, but we are now witnessing the flowering of democratic principles in social organization, which rests upon education as a basis.

Unfortunately, the increased diffusion of education in this country has not everywhere been attended by better citizenship. As knowledge has grown, the discharge of civic obligations has not everywhere correspondingly developed. For example, once 80 percent of the eligible electorate voted in national elections. This has steadily diminished until now scarcely 50 percent of the eligible voters exercise that privilege and we are among the lowest of the civilized nations in the percentage of voting citizens. Even Germany, so lately established on a democratic political basis, turns out 80 percent of her voters.

It may be that diffusion of knowledge is not casually related with diminished exercise of duties of citizenship, but, whatever the cause, the problem can only be solved by attention to citizenship training in the school. It is at least pertinent to inquire why the percentage of educated persons who interest themselves in civic matters is often very small. It was recently reported that among seven professors in a great university, not one could call the name of the Congressman who represented that district.

We are all encouraged at the rapid progress we have made toward better methods of teaching citizenship in the school and there is little doubt that the educational program of today will meet the situation adequately. We are decidedly optimistic about the school of today and the future. It has shown remarkable aptitude in adapting itself to the need of the hour. It is probably the most flexible institution that we have and has made more progress in the past decade than at any other time in history.

I began this discourse with a picture of the Ark of Education, laboring on the surface of the deluge. I did this because I remembered the words of God to Noah: "Whenever I shall bring a cloud on the earth, the bow shall be upon the cloud."

It requires no educational Noah to see spread above the Ark of Education a resplendent rainbow, which is the reflection of the glorious triumph that our present plans for training citizenship shall eventually achieve. I think we can readily detect amid the brilliantly colored banks of that rainbow of worthy citizenship the unmistakable hues of good health, broad culture, economic prosperity, and noble character.

THE FUNCTION OF THE KINDERGARTEN

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The kindergarten has three distinct but overlapping functions, two of which are fairly well accepted at present. The third is not yet realized but is on its way through the work of the nursery school. Until the kindergarten is provided with facilities for meeting all three of these functions it will fall far short of what can, may, and must contribute to American education in the future.

These three functions are as follows: The first and most imperative function of the kindergarten is to minister to the nature and needs of children from four to six years of age; its second duty is to look forward to the nature and needs of children as they develop through the sixth year. The kindergartner must see the relation of her work to the curriculum of the first grade with its activities, subjects, and achievements, laying the foundations of these in the kindergarten. Insofar as she can accomplish this without sacrificing the right of the kindergarten child to free, full development on his own level, she is fulfilling one of the legitimate functions of the kindergarten; the third function of the kindergarten is to look backward to the home, studying the experiences and types of learning which have taken place there. Many of these should be carried over into the school to reduce the gap between forms of learning which take place in the home and those which may be learned under better conditions in the kindergarten. The curriculum of the nursery school builds on the activities of the home, continuing these while introducing medical, psychiatric, psychological, and nutritional control. These must be carried forward into the kindergarten.

Few will question the first and second functions as stated above, though illustrations of present violations of these in present practice in both kindergartens and first grades may arouse discussion and disagreement.

The third function of the kindergarten seems well nigh impossible under present public school administration, but when we realize that thousands of dollars can and will be saved to communities which will provide for all young children the type of physical, mental, and emotional diagnosis and cure now given in nursery schools, perhaps we can inspire taxpayers to provide these facilities. When they are provided the kindergarten may hope to send on to the school children sound in body, mentally and emotionally sane, and socially adjusted to meet the problems of the school with a minimum of friction and expense to the public. Now that enlightened public school systems have school doctors, school psychologists, psychiatrists, nurses, and nutrition experts, the possibility of utilizing the kindergarten as an institution for the prevention, or detection and cure of the beginnings of physical and mental diseases, does not seem to be the idle dream of an idealist.

When the kindergarten was introduced into this country more than a half century ago, it survived as a philanthropy long before it was accepted as an organic member of the educational system. During this long probation period it was eagerly sought by missions, institutional churches and philanthropic organizations as the most hopeful form of social regeneration.

This was a period of national consciousness and religious disillusionment. Nationally we were gradually awakening to the new social problems in this country due to enormous increases in foreign population. The sources of immigration brought peoples difficult to assimilate and inoculate with our national ideals and standards of living. Our slums were in process of formation. These became sources of disease, crime, delinquency, and industrial

disorders, breeding centers of problems which we were nationally unprepared to meet.

Religious disillusionments followed the efforts of churches to locate missions in the slums of our cities, as a means of conversion. Thoughtful religious leaders awakened to the fact that an "over-night conversion," even when sincere, had to cope with the habits of character due to years of wrong living. The spirit might be willing, but the flesh was weak, and little could be accomplished through efforts to reconstruct adult society.

The kindergarten appeared on the horizon at the right moment for philanthropy, but the wrong one for education. Society turned to the young child as the one great hope, and kindergartens opened rapidly under religious and philanthropic influences all over America. These were located in the worst slums of our cities, and the finest specimens of America's young womanhood prepared themselves in philanthropically supported normal schools. They entered upon the work with rare enthusiasm and consecration to the cause. No neighborhood was too criminal, no family too degenerate, no child too bad. Into Little Italy, Little Russia, Little Egypt and the Ghettoes they went—offering daily care to humanity in its early years—the pre-school years. Both kindergartners and philanthropic heads soon saw the need of the ministrations of the physician, the nurse, the social worker, or visiting teacher. Funds were low, so the kindergartner taught in the morning and spent her afternoons as a social welfare worker, seeking work for the unemployed, space in hospitals for ill mothers, sisters, and brothers, searching for physicians who would remove adenoids and tonsils, or dentists who would extract diseased teeth. This was the contribution of the pioneer kindergartens. Often the kindergarten was the only social agency offering a helping hand. An example of the confidence aroused in both mother and child is demonstrated by an experience of a supervisor in these pioneer days: as she was approaching the kindergarten, which had been installed in an old building discarded by a saloon, she, the only clean and decently dressed person in the streets, was closely observed by a little ragged specimen of humanity who was struggling unsuccessfully with a huge safety pin, in his efforts to make his rags hold together until he arrived at the kindergarten. When failure stared him in the face and the disaster of losing what by courtesy may be called trousers was imminent, his eye fell upon one too well-dressed to be going anywhere in that neighborhood but to the kindergarten. Help was at hand, and shouting at the top of his voice he called "Lady, lady, are you going to the kindergarten?" "Yes" she answered, then came the confident response "Please Miss, pin me briches on me," which she proceeded to accomplish with great difficulty, but with a willing heart and hand.

Education and philanthropy were widely removed in those days. Schools accepted no responsibility for the physical condition of the child, or for the home which sent the child to school ill-nourished and diseased in body and mind. Thus the kindergartner of that day came into daily contact with family life at its lowest ebb. She was trained by necessity to see the child

she attempted to teach handicapped in his learning by the social conditions of the home.

Philanthropy then turned to the schools asking them to accept the kindergarten as a member in good and regular standing. As an entering wedge, these boards requested the use of vacant rooms in public school buildings—for there were such in those days and the kindergarten was allowed to enter, somewhat as a stepchild it is true. The least attractive room, left unused for this reason, was turned over for her use rent free, salaries and running expenses still being defrayed by the philanthropic agencies who were convinced through experience of the educational as well as the philanthropic value of the kindergarten. The next step was to persuade boards of education to accept full responsibility, and the kindergarten became part of the public school system.

The kindergarten was something of a misfit for many years for many reasons. In the first place, the long experience under philanthropic influences greatly increased the inherent philosophical tendency of the kindergarten to include in education responsibility for all those conditions in the home which hindered the learning and general welfare of the child. When the kindergartner entered the public schools she found no opportunities to continue this welfare work. There was no medical inspection, no school nurse, no school luncheons, no school psychologist, no social case-worker, no visiting teacher, etc. The kindergartner's previous training in philanthropy which included such ministrations as these, struck a strange cord in a public school system.

In the second place, kindergarten teachers had been trained in separate normal schools. Her philosophical background, her curriculum, materials and methods were too unique to be understood by grade teachers, who had been trained to use a curriculum based upon the acquirement of the three R's in their baldest and most barren form. Thus was ushered in a new era. The kindergarten was in the school but not an organic part of it. The kindergartner brought with her a peculiar philosophy of education deemed highly sentimental, and a correspondingly strange conception of a curriculum, based upon play. She encouraged children to talk, sing, dance, dramatize, model, paint, draw, build, and construct. Whoever heard of anything so preposterous as activities such as these in school buildings dedicated to silence and inactivity. The method of handling behavior problems was considered sentimental—a form of "soft pedagogy" which was supposed to ruin the child for work with the three R's in the grades. Of course the kindergarten did not prepare a child to enter the first grade. Kindergarten children were not welcomed by the primary teacher. Why should they be? This was not the fault of either kindergarten or first-grade teachers. It was due to the fact that children were supposed to pass on from one teacher to another with continuity of work when the two teachers were trained in diametrically opposed philosophies, curricula, and methods.

Fortunately for children as well as teachers, this whole situation has changed. Kindergarten and primary teachers are trained in the same nor-

mal schools, with the same psychology and philosophy, the same materials and methods; they are prepared to teach in either kindergarten or primary, and can change from one to the other with slight adjustment to the different levels of maturity of the children. There is a growing tendency to place both kindergarten and primary grades under a common supervisor trained in both fields. Kindergarten and primary teachers are cooperating in the construction of a unified curriculum in which the activities, subjects, and materials of the kindergarten are traced on up to the second, third, or fourth grade.

All the activities and subjects of the primary schools have their foundations laid in the kindergarten. We regard a kindergartner as most unintelligent if she fails to see her opportunity and obligation to discover and utilize the beginnings of all the school subjects in the spontaneous work and play of the four to six year old child. In like manner, we are most critical of any primary teacher who is not prepared to build the achievements of the first grade level upon those mastered in the child's previous experience in the kindergarten. While the majority of the kindergartners do not deem it wise to teach reading and writing as such in the kindergarten, she fails as a teacher in this field if she does not recognize and utilize the experiences out of which they spring. The International Kindergarten Union has a committee appointed to work out standards and tests by which we may detect evidences of reading readiness for kindergarten use. If these can be used in the kindergarten, much positive information regarding the child's readiness for reading can be passed on to the first grade teacher. This would save much time in discovering the proper groupings of children in the first grade according to the level of reading achievements for which they are ready. While any progressive kindergartner will readily grant that she is most remiss in her duty as a teacher unless she is prepared to detect and utilize the beginnings of all school subjects in the spontaneous work and play of the kindergarten, she may question seriously the present tendency of some more enthusiastic than wise school administrators who have discovered a new use for the kindergarten. Their unique scheme is to seize the kindergarten as a good place to locate and prevent the alarming proportion of failures in promotion from the first grade to the second. Why this difficulty cannot be cured in the grade in which the failures take place is yet to be explained. One would think that ordinary common sense would prompt us to look with doubtful eyes into any first grade curriculum in localities where failures of promotion are said to run all the way from twenty-five to fifty percent. The necessity for certain hard and fast achievements in reading are not questioned save with regard to quantity and pace decided in the light of certain intelligence tests. These may test a child's ability to do, but not necessarily his present readiness for, or his ability in first grade achievements. These sacred first grade achievements must not be altered at any cost! If a goodly proportion of the children cannot acquire them, so much the worse for them and the teacher. The same stupid mistake we have made for centuries is repeated! The child

must be made to fit the curriculum, not the curriculum to fit the child. Achievements found too difficult for maturer first grade children to bear up under are to be pushed on down in the kindergarten, on thesis that if begun sufficiently early and kept up long enough through both kindergarten and first grade the failures may be reduced at the end of the first grade. The first grade curriculum has been "reading driven" for centuries, and failures continue. The proposition is to have "word recognition" and pre-primer reading taken over by the kindergarten in order to relieve first grade pressure and failure. The worst of it is that parts of the argument on which these experiments are based are undoubtedly sound. The kindergarten can and should help to relieve first grade failures in reading by any means which do not sacrifice the kindergarten child's right to activities and experiences which minister to his growth on his own level. But when the kindergarten takes over the reading activities of the first grade she not only imposes a higher level of achievement on the less mature, but robs the immature child of activities and experiences which not only minister better to his present level, but prepare in a more effective manner for first grade achievements. It must be granted that many children of six-year mentality are in kindergartens, and of five-year mentality are in first grades. These errors are easily located and should be corrected. It is also agreed that the kindergarten can greatly contribute to reading facility in the grades by: (1) broadening the kindergarten child's first hand experience; (2) by helping the child to gain from these experiences clear images and ideas which may be easily recalled through the printed word; (3) by helping the child to deepen and clarify the ideas gained through varied modes of expression, by better organization of these ideas in his work and play, including oral language; (4) by encouraging the child to utilize these ideas in his play purposes and plans, improving these in both content and form through the application and use of ideas gained in contact with people and things. These are the backgrounds which will familiarize the child with the meanings found later in the printed page, but when enthusiasts add to these normal backgrounds the reading activities of the first grade, some of us raise a question.

In one of the most ingenious experiments trying out pre-primer reading in the kindergarten the school principal has all unconsciously changed *the whole* kindergarten curriculum so as to make it directly or indirectly circulate around word recognition; the lists of words selected from primers which the child is to master later. It is called a "fifteen minute period," but the program of activities for the whole day admirably illustrate how stories, discussions, pictures, dramatization, and handwork are all selected and arranged to further this one end. Are we conscious of what is happening? Reading achievements have dominated first grade curricula for years. All else has had to yield to its demands. A child is promoted or failed largely in the light of his ability and achievements in this one subject. Still the scheme fails with twenty-five and thirty percent. What is the cure suggested for this situation? Push the problem on down into the

kindergarten. Begin it earlier and earlier. Soon the nursery school will be invaded for the same purpose.

It is not a question of what *can* be done, but what *should* be done. Two quite full-fledged experiments were tried in the kindergarten of the Horace Mann School in 1915 and again in 1916. The children were accommodating and happy. They learned to recognize many words, but they made little or no progress in reading in the first grade over and above that made by the kindergarten children without this preparation. A teacher equally successful in kindergarten and primary was placed in the kindergarten the following year with full permission to follow her best judgment in beginner's reading. The plan was to have this teacher move on with the same children as they passed into the first grade the next year. The year passed. No reading, as such, was in evidence in our kindergarten, but every experience which prepared for later reading was utilized.

This does not argue that no word recognition is ever to be used in the kindergarten. On the contrary, all kindergartners should be trained to meet the need when it arises. But she must see to it that this does not dominate her thinking or her program or crowd out the experiences more important for the kindergarten child. Nor must her grading as a teacher depend on her success or failure in teaching reading. Here is the rub!

Another experiment in kindergarten reading most intelligently conducted, argues as one proof of its advisability, the increased appreciation and enthusiasm of the parents. Here we have another example of giving parents what they want instead of training parents to want what young children really need. The superintendent equally enthusiastic over the results following a "fifteen minute" period devoted to recognizing forty words selected in the light of their frequency in primers and readers, cites the increasing enthusiasm of a board member who objected to kindergarten expense, and the wholehearted appreciation of taxpayers who were converted to the value in kindergarten education after reading was introduced. A glance at the program in which this experiment was carried out reveals the extent to which a list of forty words may actually dominate a kindergarten. Were the forms of work and play characteristically those providing fullest opportunity for development at the kindergarten level? Were they selected first and foremost for this reason? On the contrary they give evidence of selection on the basis of the opportunities they offered for the recognition of the forty words. The kindergartners seemed equally unconscious of sacrificing the kindergarten for the grade and lent themselves tamely to the experiment. Perhaps their success as teachers would be measured in the light of success or failure in teaching word recognition!

Tests and standards for promotion from kindergarten to first grade should be carefully planned. Miss Mary Read of the department of Kindergarten-First Grade Education of Teachers College is conducting research along these lines. She says: "The purpose of this study is to derive a technique for the promotion of children from kindergarten to first grade which will be based upon native capacity and ability of children to achieve.

If we can locate children fairly accurately in an achievement scale and know their capacity to accomplish, we can then plan a first grade curriculum which will start where children are instead of where the curriculum says they should be."

Six such criteria for judging promotion standards have been set up and are to be tested in the promotions of children from the kindergarten to the first grades in the Horace Mann and other schools. It is refreshing to hear a voice crying in the wilderness of confusion regarding the advisability of the introduction of reading into the kindergarten. This problem is most admirably handled by Gertha Williams, Head of the Department of Psychology, Detroit Teachers College, in a short but telling article in the *Detroit Educational Bulletin* for October, 1925. It is so sound in its insight that one is tempted to quote it in full.

Unless the aims and objectives of the kindergarten are one and the same with those in the first grade, there is something vitally wrong with one, the other, or both. Some of us would go so far as to suggest that in any large scheme of curriculum reconstruction undertaken in a school system, the first step should be to call upon kindergarten and high school teachers to see how far the "beginnings" are in the "ends," and the "ends" are in the "beginnings." Otherwise how can there be continuity throughout? Some of us check kindergarten objectives with those selected from the best high school curricula. If there is to be continuity in education, then such a procedure is justifiable.

The third function of the kindergarten is to discover in the early years evidences of any conditions which will hinder development all through later school life. This is a contribution offered by the kindergarten to the whole school. However, this is a future function of the kindergarten rather than a present one. To accomplish this great purpose two great changes would have to take place. First, the training of the kindergartner would have to include more psychology, psychiatry, nutrition, nursing and medicine, than is now provided in most normal schools. Second, one would have to awaken the public in general, superintendents of schools, and boards of education in particular, to provide the kindergarten with facilities, not only for instruction as such, but for training children in correct habits of eating, sleeping, open air life, etc. Such a kindergarten would be open to the criticism given by a visitor to our experimental nursery schools. She said: "This looks like a cross between a home and a baby hospital," and she was right. In that there was the preparation and cooking of food, setting of tables, eating meals, out of door play, beds with sleeping hours, etc.—the nursery looked more like a home than a school. The presence of doctors, nurses, psychologists, and psychiatrists made the nursery take on the aspect of a clinic or baby hospital. With the cooperation of our superintendents, boards of education, school doctors, nurses, psychologists, and visiting nurses, we should begin to provide for our public school kindergarten children the intelligent care now being given to nursery school children from two to four years of age.

The proper start in school subjects and activities common to all good curricula is a worthy function for the kindergartens, but it is not the most important. Of still greater importance are the foundations of physical and mental health. Those of us working with enthusiasm in nursery schools for children two to four years of age, appreciate the tremendous importance of these early impressionable years, but important as these are in locating and correcting the beginnings of physical and mental disease, many of us would find ourselves less enthusiastic did we not believe that all good things provided for the mental and physical welfare of nursery babies must be pushed on up into the kindergarten and lower grades, if the good start there is to bear fruit in later years. All these rare opportunities, now provided for the two to four child in our best nursery schools, many of us struggled for years to provide for the kindergarten child. But alas, we had no facilities, no intellectual or financial support, when we became a part of the public school system. Because the nursery school is as yet too young to have any highly crystallized traditions, because as a movement it has sprung into existence at a happy moment when the whole world is awakening to the tremendous importance of these early years in conditioning the physical, mental, emotional and social conditions of later life, it is in a position to accomplish all those conditions which were prophesied and prescribed by G. Stanley Hall a quarter of a century ago.

We who studied with him at that time see in the nursery school a realization of his prophecy of the kindergartens of the future. Beginning his study of the kindergarten in 1895, he emphasized a new type of training for kindergartners, including psychology, mental hygiene, nutrition, nursing and medicine. Among his most eminent students is Dr. Arnold Gesell who is carrying forward to fruition our ideals and hopes for better conditions for young children through the researches in the Psycho-Clinics of Yale University.

The child welfare institutes of research with their clinics and their nursery schools in the Universities of Iowa, Columbia, Ohio, Cornell, Chicago, Minnesota and others; the excellent courses in child care and training offered in the household economic departments of our colleges; the scientific studies of children in the Merrill-Palmer School of Detroit; the demonstration nursery schools in such cities as Boston, Cleveland, and many others, are one and all evidences of what can and must be done for young children in the near future. Nor must this clinical study of young children be confined to the kindergarten. It should begin at the second and continue up to the eighth year, at least. This means a new type of training for teachers—a training now provided only in these institutes of child research. More and more we are convinced of the fact that the physical, mental and moral problems of school and later life are not only discoverable, but largely solvable, in their early stages. Nursery schools, kindergartens, and the early primary grades could serve as child and parent guidance clinics. These neglected conditions in early life, calling for physical, mental, and emotional diagnosis and care, grow more and more serious and difficult with each

succeeding grade. We would like to substitute such care as that now provided in our nursery schools, for the growing tendency to move the teaching of reading back into the kindergarten.

The following are some of the types of research now being made in nursery school clinics: Tests of the heart, glands, blood, and blood pressure, urine, and contents of intestines; teeth, posture, and flat foot; tests of emotional stability and social maturity; daily records of digestive, bowel, and sleeping habits; colds, their cause, prevention and cure; the effects of exercise, and frequency of exercise on learning; the effects of approval and disapproval on improvement; the effects of likes and dislikes, fears, etc., on conditioned reflexes and learning; the effects of timidity, a sense of failure and self depreciation in relation to success and failure; the effects of tantrums and stubbornness on later mental sanity and crime; the effects of too much and too little affection in relation to mental health; sex disturbances, dreams, etc.

Whether nursery schools are to become an integral part of the public schools of America as in England, yet remains to be seen. State laws would have to be changed and the public convinced that the early years are as worthy of state care as those later. Eager as some of us are to see this day, we would not have it come until the nursery schools of today now affiliated with clinics, have a chance to fulfill their promise under the freer regime of research centers. If they go into the public school system prematurely before their promise is developed into realization, they may be exposed to the danger of conforming and adjusting to public schools as they are. Instead they must bring the work of the public kindergartens and lower grades up to their level, stimulating them to study the child as a whole. When we come to the stage where we build curricula based upon the right of the younger child to learn healthy habits of food, sleep, rest, open air play and work, emotional sanity and social poise, we can hope for the nursery schools, kindergartens, and the lower grades to unite in contributing a most highly honored function in our public school systems of America.

CHARACTERISTICS OF AN EFFICIENT ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

MARY MCSKIMMON, PRESIDENT, NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
PRINCIPAL, PIERCE SCHOOL, BROOKLINE, MASSACHUSETTS

If the National Education Association had done nothing else in the last five years except to awaken the elementary principal to study his own problems, to find out what his serious responsibilities and highest opportunities are, it would be worth to the education of the children of America all that the Association has received from all sources during this whole period. The elementary principal comes closest to the entire population of children to be taught and their teachers, of any one official concerned. We can point with

pride to the progress we have made in the study of our own problems, for we have found out our own status, and our chief professional responsibilities—things entirely vague and undefined five years ago—and it is today our chief pride that this study was undertaken by no compulsion from without but rather from the self-determination of the group itself, as we came to recognize of our own accord, the indefiniteness of our powers and the bewildering demands imposed upon us, and the lack of common agreement upon which to plan as the newly organized National Education Association began to draw us in large numbers to its great meetings.

Two years before our group began to organize itself for the study of its problems, a great spur to study our own problems came to us by W. C. Reavis' compelling article in the *Elementary School Journal* in December, 1918, entitled "The Duties of the Supervising Principals." To us most of the duties were traditional. To be sure new duties were often added by the higher authorities, but no one duty was ever taken away. For the first time as a group the elementary school principals applied themselves to weighing this serious list of scores of responsibilities that heretofore had been taken, as a matter of course, one after another like steps in a flight of stairs, equal in importance. Now we began to ask, "Are the things that devour our time equally valuable in this work of giving all the children of all the people the best in our power to give?" Long and earnestly we struggled to find their relative values, then we appealed to the superintendents and professors of education in the universities to study and weigh the relative merits of the clamoring and conflicting claims of priority of importance for the principal's time. Their points of view were interesting indeed. While the superintendents agreed that the principal should devote fifty per cent of his time to supervision, the actual practice as observed by the university professors was that administrative duties and clerical work took together almost four times as many hours as was given to supervision. Supervision, nevertheless, came to its own place through this investigation, the objective of the efficient elementary school principal. How to organize his school so as to give the major portion of the school day to the improving of the learning by the children, through the improving of the teaching process, and then to define the status of the principal have been subjects of the most earnest study during the existence of our organization. What is our real job, and what are the powers delegated to us to accomplish it?

If the first task is supervision for improving the learning process, how does the efficient principal attain the end he has set for himself? The atmosphere in which he works is one peculiar to the school and is a miracle to the outside world, for it is in the land of hope, the children dwell forever in tomorrow; never, save under compulsion, turning their heads over their shoulders to cast a glance at yesterday. In this stimulating atmosphere courage and cheer become the principal's daily comrades.

The principal knows that his real service to his school world consists in being an interpreter. It is only a matter of careful study under well equipped authorities to find out how to give mental tests that shall measure

the child's native ability to learn, but how to profit by the knowledge that he gains is not so simple a matter. He must know how to interpret the facts so as to make the right adjustments for the child. He must persuade the school boards to make provision for shifting the emphasis from the study of subject matter and method to the study of the nature and needs of the individual child. He may still have to allay the distrust of mental tests in the mind of the average parent. His work of adjusting the limited or the gifted child is growing simpler each year as more and more the grade teachers are studying the whole subject of testing both by mental and achievement tests in the courses now given in both summer and Saturday morning programs.

When the principal's supreme interest is the improving of the learning process, he soon finds it necessary to help his teachers improve their own teaching. This is the real test of his leadership. The superintendents' work of rebuilding the curriculum has been of inestimable value to the principal. When this subject has been worth the most extended study that this leading educational body in our country has yet bestowed upon education, the helping of teachers keep step with the advancing curriculum has a dignity of appeal far ahead of the old ways of evaluating these subjects by which we educate the children.

The salvaging of the gifted child is not a difficult task in this land where opportunity springs up over night. There is always promotion possible, always opportunity for enriching his course by the materials giving new experience and awakening that greatest reward for work, the joy of achievement. But it is just as fine an achievement to discover the gifted teacher, and one that has long waited accomplishment. The price that the really gifted genius among teachers pays for advancement is promotion to a position of administration where the children are robbed of her power to awaken, of enlarging their horizon. As Emerson says of such, "By simple living, by an illimitable soul, you inspire, you correct, you instruct, you raise, you embellish all. By your own act you teach the beholder how to do the practicable. According to the depth from which you draw your own life, such is the depth, not only of your strenuous effort, but of your manners and presence." You are all recalling at this moment just such a rarely gifted teacher that you have once known. Cannot this honorable group find some way to reward such service, and keep it for the healing of the world through its blessing to little children; some means of real recognition that will enable the gifted teacher to grow in power till her achievement is as known and acclaimed as that of a great musician?

The efficient principal has learned how to make sure of professional growth for the whole faculty through the regular teachers' meetings. If the teachers are bored or unwilling participants, "The fault is not in our stars but in ourselves." Dr. Cubberly has neatly and completely charted this kind of enterprise, and it is a wholesome thing for us to take up his study of meetings with our teachers, and honestly face the danger of having to confess ourselves guilty of some of the worst types in not so remote a

past as we might wish. We all know his bulletin-board type where the notices and directions, wearying to exhaustion the already tired group, might just as well have been consigned to the kindly silence of the patient bulletin boards. Some of us know the grievance type—an apple sour as vinegar—where the time that should have been spent for professional growth and understanding of the finer things is snatched by a small group for the rehearsing of all the discouraging things in the whole profession, forgetting that the irritations of one condition of life are common to all and are what the poet calls—

Machinery just meant

To give the soul its bent

Try thee and turn thee forth sufficiently impressed.

The principal has learned that neither the grievance type monopolized by the disaffected, nor the grumbling type expressive of his own dyspeptic hours, nor the routine that looks like real business, but is an easy way to keep up the appearance of progress without doing the hard delving for the hidden treasure that makes for true growth is what the golden moments of the teachers' meeting should be spent for. Nor is it the lecture-meeting where the principal mounts his favorite hobby and ambles along apparently at a great rate, but amounting to little more than giving his teachers brief period of troubled rest. Milton knew that kind of leadership when he said: "The hungry sheep look up and are not fed."

The really efficient elementary principal knows that this time beyond price devoted to conference or formal meeting is his golden opportunity to awaken the latent powers and professional devotion of the teachers in his school. It is he who must take the blame when his meetings are dead and unprofitable to his teachers, exactly as they must assume the responsibility when their work falls cold and dead upon the children in their classrooms. There are no such opportunities that can come to the principal comparable to this experience by which he is continually being weighed in the balance.

The meeting worthy of a professionally minded principal is a professional meeting—one carefully planned with real objectives, with common interest participated in with careful study by way of preparation by all, contributed by all, but always under the control of the master mind of the principal as leader. For it is he whose professional insight and wisdom must be the compelling force in making the meeting like a watered garden, a place and time for beautiful growth of power and skill and renewed courage and confidence. When tired, discouraged teachers leave these meetings rested and refreshed, the principal may know that he has met his great opportunity and takes with him the reward of the real victor which is the ability to do a harder and less promising piece of work with even greater victory the next time. And that is the happiest recompense that could come to him, for just around the corner of his career, the new and greater difficulty is lying in wait. At a Washington women's club recently the meeting included a

little prayer that seemed to me to belong to teachers' meetings with a peculiar grip:

Keep us, O God, from pettiness, let us be large in thought, in word, in deed. Let us be done with fault finding, and leave off self-seeking. May we never be hasty in judgment and always generous. Let us take time for all things; make us to grow calm, serene, gentle. Teach us to put into action our better impulses straightforward and unafraid, and O, Lord God, let us not forget to be kind.

The efficient elementary principal gets his real power through his touch with his community. He is a member of the church of his choice, men's clubs for social and political interests, the board of trade or chamber of commerce will welcome him if he is the real producer of human values that he should be. Anything that will get him and keep him in touch with men, real, live ones, will be his salvation, for at times it seems as if his mind has broken from its moorings, for he seems to be in a world where fathers are no more. The Parent-Teacher organization is one of the greatest assets in America today to his profession, but after a few years he begins to wonder if the entire population of his school are the children of widows. Our entire profession is suffering today because those who earn the money for the taxes by which education is maintained are only very remotely interested in the education of their own children whose entire future life depends in large measure on what we are doing to those same children today. The principal must leave the walls of his own profession and all its activities if he is to get into touch with those whose ignorance of the aims and attitudes of education today is costing us so much. But if you want to know what contact—living, vital contact—with this world of men, outside the school means, read President Ide Sargent's splendid account of his Dr. Pearl in the *Elementary Principals' Fourth Yearbook*.

What holds us? We whose limitations financially, socially, even professionally, loom so great? The principalship is not simply a stepping stone to the superintendency and strangely enough, some have even refused preferring the intangible rewards of life and service to the apparent ones. Listen to the confession of one who deserted from the ranks. Who among the wise of the outside world could blame her? But listen!

In the town where I first taught, schools were closed on account of influenza. Every teacher in the town volunteered to nurse and did it. We were all hundreds of miles from home. My landlady said, "Remember, if you get sick, you can't come back here." When schools convened in December, the school board refused to pay our salaries during the entire period of our serving the community.

I taught two years in the rural schools, our clothes, friends, actions, telephone conversations and mail were all closely observed and freely criticised. Then I left and went to college to get a city position. I spent five years in college and post graduate work learning to teach. I had more personal liberty in the city school, but the classroom liberty was nil. Courses of study were planned by a speed maniac remote from boys and girls. We

were allotted three days for Burke's Conciliation and one day each for Macaulay's speeches. Then I gave it up and went into business. Without any special preparation I doubled my salary, then I tripled it. No one expects me to perform miracles.

Now listen!

Yet, sometimes I feel like one who has seen the glory of God—and deserted.

High faith in the future, love of eager boys and girls, sacrifice, service—could one who has known them forget?

What is the test of the efficient principal? Is not the test what it has been from the beginning, the imperishable part of the product? Those immaterial things, which stronger than steel, more enduring than adamant, inform the mind and soul of those in whom he lives to create. For he is a creator, not merely the builder, nor the discoverer, nor even the interpreter. For it is through his touch on the plastic life of his school that the miracle of the inner life takes place.

Dust as we are, the immortal spirit
Grows like harmony in music

sang Wordsworth in his great poem explaining the growth of childhood's soul.

In our own day, H. G. Wells has immortalized the soul of all great developers of childhood. In his book, *The Undying Fire* is revealed the mortal antagonism between the blindness of the world gone mad over money success, and that devotion to an ideal that holds to its end, though crushed between the upper and nether millstones. This great schoolmaster here is appropriately enough named Job, and when he has passed unscathed through the fires of trial, and the sunlight of great blessing and great peace visits him again, he sings his paeon of trust in unforgettable words, and dares for once to speak of his own gift to the lives of his scholars—golden words for those of us who dare to lift our eyes, to confess the high calling to which we were called: "My boys have learned the history of mankind so that it has become their own adventure.

"They have learned geography so that the world is their possession.

"I have had languages taught to make the past live again in their minds and to be windows upon the souls of alien peoples.

"Science has taken my boys into the secret places of matter and out again into the nebulae.

"Some of my boys have made good business men because they were more than business men.

"When the war came my boys were ready. They went to their deaths—how many have gone to their deaths!" and would you not, my fellow-workers, have to search the veritable book of Job to find a more perfect tribute to the great ideal of education?

"And for the future, I simply want this world better taught so that wherever the flame of God can be lit, it has been lit."

The lamp of knowledge, my fellow-workers, yes, but lit with the flame of God!

PROBLEMS OF RURAL LIFE AND RURAL EDUCATION

FRANK O. LOWDEN, FORMER GOVERNOR OF ILLINOIS

A healthy rural community life is essential to any continuing civilization. Is the rural community breaking down in the United States? Many think so. I recall the country school of my early days. It was the center of a genuine community life. The school house was a simple structure, plain and unadorned. But the country school itself was a different thing from what it is today. There were pupils enough in each district to make the school a vital thing. It was large enough to stimulate the group spirit. The school could feel a pride in its numbers and in its achievements. There were present all the elements required for the growth of a fine spirit of sportsmanship, both in the classes and upon the playground. And this spirit has been found indispensable to success among self-governing peoples. The school house too was something more than a mere educational center. Spelling classes, arithmetic classes, and debating societies drew from the countryside for miles around not only the school children but the adults as well. How changed the country school of today!

The population in the school district, due largely to improved farm machinery, has steadily declined. A few years ago, the State of Iowa enacted a law by which, when the number of pupils in any school district was reduced to five, the school should be closed and provision made for carrying those pupils to another school. Under that law five hundred schools in the State of Iowa alone have been closed. The country school, therefore, has lost its old vitality and its old importance in the life of the people. It is hard to make the school directors themselves believe that they need give much attention to so small a group. For the most part, the little school house which was once so dynamic a thing in the life of the community has fallen into neglect. It remains upon the hilltop as of yore. It too often, though, has an appearance of decrepitude and is usually a melancholy memorial of better days.

At the same time that the rural school has been undergoing this evolution, the schools in the towns and cities constantly have improved. Handsome and stately buildings have taken the place of the ruder structures of earlier years; the course of instruction has been greatly broadened; sanitation and recreation have been provided for. In other words, for a half century, at least, the rural schools have been going backward, while town and city schools have been moving forward.

The old isolation of the farm in a sense has been broken down by the telephone, the automobile, and the radio. Communication and interchange

of visits between those who live in the country and those who live in the city are becoming more frequent all the time. The farmer knows how the city man lives. The farmer's wife knows the conveniences that the house wife in the city enjoys. The farmer and his wife and children know of the superiority of the city school over the country school. The time therefore has come when we must strive to equalize conditions of living upon the farm and in the towns and cities. We shall be unable much longer to maintain a double standard of living in the United States, as we have in recent years. If the inequalities which now exist shall continue we shall not much longer be able to keep the normal boys and girls upon the farm. The trek cityward is already under way. If it shall go on as rapidly as it has in the last five years, the next generation will witness a farm population largely composed of the physically and mentally unfit.

Educators have not been blind to this distressing contrast. In some sections of the country consolidated country schools have been established. These schools have marked a vast improvement in the life of the community. For farmers are as eager to give their children a good education as are those who live in the cities and towns. They have found, though, that the consolidated school, to be at all adequate, means a heavier tax burden than they can bear.

The National Education Association has been aware for years of the paralysis slowly creeping over the country schools. It initiated the movement for the consolidated country school. But it found that the consolidated school could not be adopted generally until the farmer's income was increased. The representatives of this great Association, therefore, undertook a study of American agriculture, with a view of learning if possible why it was that the farmer was unable to give his children as good an education as the children of the city schools enjoyed. Their conclusions form one of the most interesting chapters in the entire history of education of which I know. They delved into the subject deeply. They studied not only the conditions surrounding the American farmer, but they went abroad to learn what lessons the farmers of other lands might teach. They found that where the farmers had organized themselves into cooperative marketing associations, there agriculture was in its best estate; there rural education was most advanced; there a finer community life had been evolved; there it was no longer difficult to keep a desirable citizenship upon the farm. And so this great Association resolved to bring to children of America, through the public schools, the gospel of cooperation. A committee was created charged with the duty of preparing a course of instruction for the public schools, which should convey to the minds of the future citizens of the republic the spirit as well as the substance of the cooperative method in agriculture. It was a great and a patriotic movement which this association initiated.

Organization is a most powerful factor in human progress. The economists as long ago as Adam Smith found in organization the key to industrial growth. Organization means the difference between the mob and a

highly organized progressive society. The psychologists tell us that in an unorganized mass of men the primal instincts have full sway. Therefore, he who appeals most strongly to the passions of the unorganized mass influences them most. Reason, justice, mercy, all the finer qualities which civilization has evolved, are swept aside by the rising tide of the primitive passions of men. The voice of the scholar, of the humanitarian, of the moralist, and of the preacher, is drowned. Now, if we take this same unorganized mass and shall succeed in giving it thorough organization, the wisest and best men within it rise to positions of leadership. The result is that its conduct, instead of inclining to the plane of the lowest, will tend to rise to the level of the highest. Through organization only does progress come.

Everywhere else organization has been the dominant note of the last generation. Labor has availed itself of the power which organization gives. Industry has proceeded in the same direction. A few great corporations in every field have taken the place of innumerable smaller independent units scattered over the land. Not only are there fewer manufacturers relative to production in every line, but they in turn are organized into a great national body. The association thus formed meets at least once a year and considers questions of world supply and demand and other subjects of common interest to the industry. The great corporations which go to make up the industry therefore are able to plan the next year's operations intelligently and in a measure to adjust their production to the probable demand. From time to time they determine the price for their product, which remains until new conditions require a change. In agriculture alone have the methods of marketing made no improvement except as to the sale of those products which are now being marketed through cooperative commodity marketing associations. Indeed, while the farmer generally has retained his old methods, they have lost much of their original efficacy because of the tendency towards organization on the part of the purchasers of his product. The number of sellers has constantly increased, while the number of purchasers has as constantly decreased.

Agriculture, therefore, finds itself with its millions of members freely competing among themselves, while it is obliged to sell its products in a highly organized industrial and commercial world. Now if the farmers are to put themselves upon terms of equality with the great industries of the country they too must organize. It is not desirable that they should imitate the great industries, adopt the corporate form of organization and operate their farms through corporate management. It would weaken our whole social structure if our millions of farmers were to surrender their independence in this way. Nor is it necessary. While much improved efficiency in production is still possible, farmers have made and are making constant progress in this respect. The problems which press hardest upon him today are concerned with the marketing of his products at a price which will enable him to live and to go on producing. For some years the price level of farm products has been below the general price level.

The farmer must find some way to restore the right relationship between the prices he receives for his products and the prices he pays for other commodities. The farmer too must organize for the purpose of marketing his products.

Recently the National Industrial Conference Board has been making a study of the agricultural problem. That board was created by the chief industries of the nation primarily for research on subjects directly affecting industry. Some time ago it resolved to depart from its usual path and to investigate the farm problem. For the board recognized the vital relation of all industry to agriculture. Its preliminary report has just been made. The board finds that:

Agriculture has been able to compete with other branches of our economic life for labor and capital only by virtue of consumption of its own basic capital and by virtue of the qualities of the farm population itself.

It concludes:

American agriculture is faced with the need of adjusting itself through new forms of organization to the new system of economic life in which it finds itself today.

Cooperative farm marketing associations are no longer an experiment. In Denmark and Holland they have existed longest and perhaps have achieved their greatest success. In California the fruit growers for many years have been marketing their products through cooperative associations. There are innumerable other instances. Wherever cooperatives have been employed, there we find agriculture in its best estate. In those communities farms are better improved and are kept in a higher state of cultivation and repair. The rural school has made great progress; an air of thrift and prosperity is likely to abound; a better community spirit has evolved; the farm has more nearly approached the ideal requirements of a home.

And, therefore, the far-reaching consequences of this movement which you have inaugurated no man can estimate. It means the betterment of American agriculture. But it means more. It means the development of a finer rural citizenship; and in times of stress it is this citizenship upon which the nation must rely. The cooperative way in agriculture is not an easy one to attain. It requires the exercise of many virtues. I think these have been best catalogued by Professor E. C. Branson, of the University of North Carolina, in his book called *Farm Life Abroad*.

Without the cooperative virtues of sagacity, faith in one's fellows, willing subordination to self-chosen authority, vigilance, loyalty, and courage, a man would better stay out of a cooperative society, for it tests character more severely than any other mode of business, way of life, or form of civic enterprise yet devised by

These are the very virtues, however, which must be nourished and strengthened if self-governing nations are to survive. It happens, therefore, that while the teacher is instructing the boys and girls about cooperation he is civilized man.

also laying the foundations of a better citizenship. Experience has shown that only the educated farmer is qualified for membership in a cooperative society. It has been the opinion of our profoundest statesmen from the beginning that self-government can endure permanently only through an intelligent citizenship.

I am wondering if in this age in which material triumphs everywhere strike the eye and captivate the fancy, we are not losing faith in the value of an educated citizenship. I am wondering if we are not entertaining the notion just a little bit that this stupendous machine-made civilization of ours will go thundering on its way forever even though we deny the value of some of the things which our scholars and statesmen of earlier time thought vital.

The leaders in the cooperative movement are finding too, more and more the need of strong local organizations. They are stressing this as never before. The ideal country school also tends to develop a closer community spirit.

And so a better type of rural education and farmers' cooperative societies go hand in hand. They reenforce each other,

The progress and security of a nation depend largely upon the kind of people who live in the country. The cities may be more splendid and brilliant. They are more likely to attract the notice of visitors from far lands. They may have a more conspicuous place in the histories which men write. He, however, who would measure the soundness of a nation and predict its future will go out into the open country to learn what manner of men he there will find. A city may burn to ashes and a more splendid one arise upon its ruins. But when the soil from out of which the greatness of the city springs is once impoverished or the people living upon it reduced to penury, the city will vanish from the map of the world. History records a long line of great, splendid, metropolitan centers that enjoyed their brief day—brief as history measures time—and then disappeared forever because they neglected the country-side which has nourished them. This may have come about by the exhaustion of the soil. It may have been by the gradual impoverishment of those who till the soil. It does not matter. For the maintenance of the soil and the well-being of those who cultivate it are equally vital to any nation that would endure.

INTRODUCTION OF PRESIDENT COOLIDGE

FRANK W. BALLOU, PRESIDENT OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE, AND SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, WASHINGTON, D. C.

This first evening meeting of the fifty-sixth annual convention of the Department of Superintendence is unusually significant.

It is held on the one hundred ninety-fourth anniversary of the birth of George Washington. It is especially fitting that this meeting tonight should

consider some of the ideals and the spirit of one of the founders of our country, since it is through education that these patriotic ideals and traditions are transmitted from one generation to the next.

This meeting of the Department of Superintendence is held in the nation's capital. Superintendents from the states, from the cities, and from rural communities are in attendance at this convention to consider their common educational problems, if possible to find a satisfactory solution to some of them, and to gain that inspiration and professional profit which inevitably comes from a visit to the capital of our nation wherein are found so many patriotic shrines and evidences of our national greatness.

Eighteen years ago this month the Department of Superintendence last met in Washington. Since that time it has been impossible for the Department to meet again in this city because no single meeting place has been sufficient in size to accommodate the attendance at the convention. The Washington Auditorium provides such a meeting place and the superintendents who are here assembled are happy to return again to this city which they look upon as the heart of the nation.

When the Department last met in Washington, President Roosevelt received the superintendents in the East Room of the White House and delivered an extended address. Tonight we meet in this great Washington Auditorium, where are gathered six thousand people; among them are the state superintendents from the forty-eight states, and the city superintendents of schools in cities of all sizes scattered from the Atlantic seaboard on the east to the Golden Gate on the west and from the wintry climate of the Northwest to the genial warmth of Florida.

On the former occasion the address of the President was made to a comparatively small body of superintendents in the East Room of the White House, and was later printed and distributed to those in attendance; today in this great auditorium the address of the President is made to a visible audience of six thousand people, while by radio his message is broadcast to an invisible audience of unnumbered thousands who sit in their homes, not only in the city of Washington but hundreds of miles from the presence of the speaker.

This assemblage comprises practically all of the school officials in directive educational positions throughout the country. The officers are in direct contact with the great body of nearly eight hundred thousand teachers of the United States. These officers are responsible for the supervision of the daily education of more than twenty-five million school children in the public schools of the nation.

Conditions have materially changed since we last met in Washington. Not only has the Department increased in size but the importance of our educational meetings has increased enormously until today the meeting of the Department of Superintendence is considered the greatest educational gathering held anywhere in the world.

We, the superintendents here assembled, are profoundly appreciative of the consideration which has been shown us by the speaker of the evening in honoring us with his presence and in addressing us on this occasion.

I have the honor of presenting to you the President of the United States, Calvin Coolidge.

WASHINGTON'S BIRTHDAY ADDRESS

CALVIN COOLIDGE, PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES

It is doubtful if anyone outside of certain great religious teachers ever so thoroughly impressed himself on the heart of humanity as has George Washington. No figure in America has been the subject of more memorial tributes and more unstinted praise. And yet the subject never seems to be exhausted and the public interest never seems to be decreased. The larger our experience with affairs of the world, the more familiar we become with his life and teachings, the more our admiration enlarges, and the greater grows our estimation of his wisdom. He represented the marvelous combination of the soldier, the patriot and the statesman. In the character of each he stands supreme.

As a brave soldier he won the Revolutionary War. As an unselfish patriot he refused to use the results of that victory for his own benefit, but bestowed them all on his fellow countrymen. As a wise statesman, gathering around him the best talent of his time, he created the American Republic. All the increasing years only reveal to us how universally great he was. If to set a mark upon the minds of men which changes the whole course of human events is teaching, then Washington ranks as a prince of teachers.

The world is not the same as that into which he was born on that February day in 1732. It is a better world. The stately march of civilization which has since advanced so far, has proceeded in a course which he marked out. The imposing edifice of human progress which has since been raised so high rests to a large extent upon the foundations which he wrought. To those who wish more civilization and more progress there must be a continuing determination to hold to that course and to maintain those foundations. If any doubt what benefit these have been, they have but to compare the present state of America especially, or even of the rest of the world, with what it was when Washington was born.

History seems to indicate that he led and directed a transformation that was growing with an increasing strength over western civilization. The fires of the Middle Ages had burned out. The reaction from the days of Cromwell had run its course in England. The glory of the old régime in France was declining. The power of Spain was shifting to other hands. But while the old was passing the new had not yet begun. Materially and spiritually, things were at a low ebb in the Old World. It has been described as a time

when poetry sank into dull prose; when philosophy rarely soared above the material or the purely logical; when the only earnestness existing took the direction of greed or self-indulgence; when the public service was corrupt; when public morals were licentious and when common language was profane.

The finances of the people were in a disordered condition. It was distinctly a transition period in America. The early settlers who had come from the old country had passed away. A very large proportion of the inhabitants of the Colonies, estimated by some as nearly 90 percent, were native born. The pioneer crusading fervor was gone. The new awakening had not come. The attachment to those institutions that are represented by an order of nobility was breaking down. Both in the Old World and in the New the ancient aristocracy was crumbling; but the modern democracy had not yet arisen. An era was approaching which was to give less and less attention to kings and more and more attention to the people. In that era Washington was to be the heroic figure.

No doubt the most powerful influence which was working to establish the new order was the revival of religion. This movement had been started in England by John Wesley and George Whitefield in 1729. It was distinctly an effort to reach the common people. They went down among those who were not otherwise reached, preaching the gospel. In America, Jonathan Edwards led two revival movements, culminating in 1742. Whitefield came to this country and preached to great congregations during this period, and the followers of Wesley sent Bishop Asbury here in 1771. These religious activities were distinctly popular movements. They rested on the theory that every human soul was precious. They resulted in a leveling process; but it was not a leveling down, it was a leveling up. They raised every person that came under their influence to a higher conception of life. A new recognition of spiritual worth gave to all humanity an increased importance.

Another very predominating influence, supplementing religion and flowing from it, was education. This movement was not new in the Colonies but it increased in volume after 1732. It has been claimed that the Reformed Dutch Church of New York founded an academy in 1633 and that the Boston Latin School was established in 1635. In the same year Boston took action in a town meeting to support a school, and in Connecticut and Rhode Island schools were opened within a few years. In Philadelphia, New Jersey, Maryland, Virginia, and South Carolina, and other Colonies, early action was taken to provide schools, but the effort was not followed up so assiduously as it was in New England, where the clergy were very active in its promotion. This influence was seen in the first compulsory school law in America, which was passed in Massachusetts in 1647.

. . . it being one chief project of the old deluder Satan to keep men from the knowledge of the Scriptures," the preamble recited, the General Court ordered that each township "after the Lord hath increased them to the number of 50 householders shall then forthwith appoint one within every town to teach all such children to write and read.

Towns of 100 families were required to have a grammar school and a teacher able to prepare youths for the university. Penalties were fixed for the violation of this law.

In 1732 there were already three colleges in America—Harvard, William and Mary, and Yale—with a combined attendance which is estimated at about 275 students.

The intellectual awakening that went on between that time and the opening of the Revolutionary War could not be more plainly revealed than by the establishment during that period of only a little over 40 years of no less than 10 additional colleges. Then were laid the beginnings of such great institutions as Pennsylvania, Princeton, Columbia, Brown and Dartmouth. When it is remembered that a knowledge of the truth has always been the maker of freedom, this remarkable quickening of the religious and intellectual life of the Colonies in these years just prior to the Declaration of Independence becomes of enormous significance. Rightly considered, it would have been an ominous warning to the British Government that America had long since begun to think for itself and unless justly treated would soon begin to act for itself.

While this intellectual and spiritual awakening was taking place during the youth and maturing years of Washington, he benefited by it not so much from taking part in it as in later directing the results of it. Although he lived in one of the most populous and perhaps richest of the Colonies, popular education around him was still undeveloped. Newspapers were almost unknown in the New World and permanent and regular lines of transportation did not exist. About the only regular visitors to his Colony were foreign tobacco traders, dealers in fur, and peddlers. The clergy were almost the only professional class. The people were very largely engaged in agriculture.

At the early age of 3, however, Washington was placed under the instruction of a tutor, who seems to have confined his teaching to the most rudimentary subjects. When he was 11 another man took charge of his education and began to instruct him in the fundamentals of the forms of business. Some of his copy books of that day are still in existence. There is evidence that he was taught some Latin, but his preliminary education was virtually completed when he was 13 years old. Paul Leicester Ford says that:

The end of Washington's school days left him a good cipherer, a bad speller, and a still worse grammarian; but fortunately the termination of instruction did not by any means end his education.

After this he studied surveying and pursued that occupation for several years. This was an exacting calling, training him in accuracy. But when he was 15 he came into close contact with Lord Fairfax, a cultured gentleman of 60 years, who had a considerable library. His diaries of that period show him reading English history and essays in the *Spectator*. But these early opportunities constituted only the beginning of his education.

which he continued in one form or another almost to the end of his days. His experience, his power of observation and absorption finally overcame this lack of early training, so that in his later days his writings, correct in form and taste, adequately revealed the great strength of character which he had developed.

Perhaps because of his own early experience he was the more solicitous for the members of his family. To one who was charged with the care of John Washington he wrote as follows:

In respect to the kinds and manner of his study, I leave it wholly to your better judgment. Had he begun, or rather pursued, his study of the Greek language, I should have thought it no bad acquisition; but whether if he acquire this now, he may not forego some useful branches of learning, is a matter worthy of consideration. To be acquainted with the French tongue is become part of polite education; and to a man who has the prospect of mixing in a large circle absolutely necessary. Without arithmetick, the common affairs of life are not to be managed with success. The study of geometry and mathematics (with due regard to the limites of it) is equally advantageous. The principles of philosophy, morals, etc., I should think a very desirable knowledge for a gentleman.

His practical interest in education in his later life was further manifest by his accepting the position of a chancellor of William and Mary College in 1788.

In religion he conformed to the practice of his time. It is related that he was baptized when two months old and probably attended church regularly until he was 16. From that time until 1759 he was largely engaged in expeditions. After his marriage and settlement at Mount Vernon he was made vestryman in two parishes, for one of which was instrumental in erecting a building. While he was not a constant church attendant, he was a constant contributor and always gave respectful consideration to the religious beliefs of others. He was tolerant in all things.

The mature opinion of Washington upon the importance of the intellectual, moral, and religious forces of the Nation is not only revealed by his actions, but is clearly set forth in his statements. He looked upon these attributes as the foundation which supported the institutions of our Republic. This opinion was most forcibly expressed in his farewell address, where he said:

Of all the dispositions and habits which lead to political prosperity, religion and morality are indispensable supports. In vain would that man claim the tribute of patriotism, who should labor to subvert these great pillars of human happiness, these firmest props of the duties of men and citizens. The mere politician, equally with the pious man, ought to respect and to cherish them. A volume could not trace all their connections with private and public felicity. Let it simply be asked where is the security for property, for reputation, for life, if the sense of religious obligation desert the oaths, which are the instruments of investigation in courts of justice? And let us with caution indulge the supposition, that morality can be maintained without religion.

Whatever may be conceded to the influence of refined education on minds of peculiar structure, reason and experience both forbid us to expect that national

morality can prevail in exclusion of religious principle. 'Tis substantially true that virtue or morality is a necessary spring of popular government. The rule indeed extends with more or less force to every species of free government. Who that is a sincere friend to it can look with indifference upon attempts to shake the foundation of the fabric?

The policies of Washington always had a national outlook. He warned his country against sectionalism. He promoted internal improvements calculated to bring together different parts of the Nation. When he came to the consideration of the problem of training the youth of the country he was not only in favor of education for its own sake, but sought to make it contribute to the national spirit. Believing thoroughly in American ideals and in the American Union, it early occurred to him that a national university would be beneficial both by the power it would have to present the principles on which the Republic was founded, and the power it would have to resist provincialism, by creating a forum for the exchange of ideals through a student body drawn from all quarters of the Nation. It is said that he expressed this thought soon after he took command of the Continental Army at Cambridge. He referred to it in a general discussion of the subject of education in one of his early messages to the Congress, in which he said:

Nor am I less persuaded that you will agree with me in the opinion that there is nothing which can better deserve your patronage than the promotion of science and literature. Knowledge is, in every country, the surest basis of happiness. In one in which the measures of government receive their impressions so immediately from the sense of the community as in ours it is proportionably essential. To the security of a free constitution it contributes in various ways—by convincing those who are interested with the public administration that every valuable end of government is best answered by the enlightened confidence of the people and by teaching the people themselves to know and to value their own rights; to discern and provide against invasions of them; to distinguish between oppression and the necessary exercise of lawful authority, between brethren, proceeding from a disregard to their convenience, and those resulting from the inevitable exigencies of society; to discriminate the spirit of liberty from that of licentiousness, cherishing the first and avoiding the last; and uniting a speedy but temperate vigilance against encroachments with an inviolable respect for the laws.

Whether this desirable object will be best promoted by affording aids to seminaries of learning already established, by the institution of a national university, or by any other expedients, will be worthy of a place in the deliberations of the legislature.

And in his farewell address he again uttered this same thought as follows:

Promote, then, as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge. In proportion as the structure of a government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened.

He urged it more strongly in a letter to the Commissioners of the District of Columbia in 1795, and finally he declared in his will—

That as it has always been a source of serious regret with me to see the youth of these United States sent to foreign countries for the purpose of education, often before their minds were formed or they had imbibed any adequate ideas of the happiness of their own, contracting too frequently not only habits of dissipation and extravagance, but principles unfriendly to republican government and to the true and genuine liberties of mankind, which thereafter are rarely overcome. For these reasons it has been my ardent wish to see a plan devised on a liberal scale which would have a tendency to spread systematic ideas through all parts of this rising Empire, thereby to do away local attachments and state prejudices as far as the nature of things would, or indeed ought to admit, from our national councils.

Looking anxiously forward to the accomplishment of so desirable an object as this is (in my estimation), my mind has not been able to contemplate any plan more likely to effect the measure than the establishment of a university in a central part of the United States to which the youth of fortune and talents from all parts thereof might be sent for the completion of their education in all the branches of polite literature in arts and sciences—in acquiring knowledge in the principles of politics and good government—and (as a matter of infinite importance in my judgment) by associating with each other and forming friendships in juvenile years, be enabled to free themselves in a proper degree from those local prejudices and habitual jealousies which have just been mentioned and which when carried to excess are never failing sources of disquietude to the public mind and pregnant of mischievous consequences to this country.

And he therefore made a bequest to the national government on condition that it cooperate in carrying out his wish for a national university.

His desire for the increase of knowledge was further elaborated and reiterated in his will. In that instrument he even provided for educating the slave children which he set free. He made bequests to two academies besides that for the founding of a national university. Although the Congress failed to cooperate, so that this wish was never carried into effect as he had contemplated it, yet the city of Washington has been made the seat of no less than 10 colleges and universities, and the larger institutions all over our country are more national than local in their precepts and teaching.

While there has been agitation lasting almost up to the present day for a national university, if the idea ever prevails it will probably not be an institution devoted to the regular collegiate courses, but one for postgraduate and original research work, for which there are such abundant sources and opportunities already located in the capital city. The federal government, however, has not been remiss in the support of advanced learning and of vocational training, for which it has appropriated more than \$90,000,000 in the last 35 years, while for general educational purposes it has donated about 95,000,000 acres of the public lands.

The country at large has not failed to follow the precepts of Washington. From the three institutions of higher learning in existence at the time of his birth the number has grown to 913, with a total enrolment of over 664,000 students and over 56,000 teachers, an endowment of nearly \$815,000,000, and a property value of over \$1,000,000,000. Our elementary and secondary schools have expanded until they provide for more than 26,000,000 pupils and require over 822,000 teachers. In 1912 the total

amount expended yearly for all educational purposes was about \$706,000,000. This has been increasing with great rapidity, until in 1924 it reached \$2,400,000,000. The source of this enormous expenditure, so far as public money is concerned, is almost entirely from the local and state governments.

This represents the result which has been secured by the carrying out of some of the most important policies of our first President. It should be noted that these are the policies of peace. They are based on a desire for intellectual and moral enlightenment. They are the only means by which misunderstandings, suspicions, hatreds, and wars can finally be eradicated from the earth. They are the foundation of order, of law, and of an advancing civilization. It is these elements of domestic tranquility and foreign harmony that Washington helped to build into the structure of our institutions. There is no other structure on which they can rest.

Envy, malice, uncharitableness, class jealousies, race prejudices and international enmities are not realities. They do not abide. They are only the fictions of unenlightened comprehension. Those who preach them are not safe advisers and not sound leaders. Nothing but discord and disaster at home and abroad can result from following these policies. Washington was the antithesis of all this. His writings and teachings breathe a higher, broader purpose, a more inspired leadership. No man clung more tenaciously to what he believed was right, or was prepared to make greater sacrifices in its support. But he viewed the right as a universal principle, to be applied not only to himself but to others, not only to his own state but to the nation, not only to his own countrymen but to foreigners. There was nothing about him of the small American.

He believed our own political institutions were superior to those of other countries, but he never preached hatred of all things foreign and he made large concessions in the negotiation of treaties for the settlement of disputed questions which were for the advantage of foreign nations. He believed that obligations were mutual; that what we expected to receive we should be ready to give, both in the field of citizenship and in the larger domain of international relations. He clung to the realities. That was his greatness.

Washington has been known as one of the most practical of leaders. He was not emotional. He was possessed of that broad comprehension of a situation which made his judgment eminently sound. With the possible exception of the field of Monmouth, when disobedience to his orders amounting almost to treachery was losing the day, history always reveals him as calm, cool, and collected. He always knew what he was doing. He was not a sentimentalist. But he was a man capable of deep and abiding affection and of exalted and inspiring ideals. He loved his country with an abounding devotion. He lavished upon it a wealth of genius.

We are wont to think of him as a military commander and a civil administrator—as a man of public affairs. He was surpassingly great in all of that. But he was very much more. He wished to see his country

not only materially prosperous and politically successful, but beyond that, and above it, he wished to see the intellectual, moral, and spiritual life of the people developed. This is the side of Washington to which too little attention has been given. He did not fail during his lifetime to give the most painstaking thought to these subjects. In his Farewell Address he solemnly warned his countrymen that these are the foundations on which rest all American institutions. More than that, they are the foundations on which all civilization must rest. It is as an expounder of these great principles that he performed the greatest service for the world.

Our country has prospered, our government is secure. But that prosperity and that security flow from the school and the church. They are the product of the mind and the soul. They are the result of the character of the American people. Through and through Washington is the great example of character. He sought to bestow that heritage upon his country. We shall fail in our estimation and understanding of him unless we remember that during his lifetime he helped to build a place of religious worship; in his will he provided for institutions of learning, and in his Farewell Address he emphasized the spiritual values of life. But what he did was even more eloquent than what he said. He was a soldier, a patriot, a statesman; but in addition to all these he was a great teacher.

TEACHING AS A PROFESSION

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There has been so much said in the discussion of education as a profession that I have no desire at this time to give any full treatment of the subject. My inclination is to speak of such aspects of the problem as now seem to have a current and special importance.

The subject of the profession of teaching has largely been discussed from the standpoint of the obligations imposed upon the individual member of the profession, but I think a far more profitable discussion at this time would cover the collective or the corporate responsibility for the group as a whole. In other words, it is the profession as an organization rather than the profession as an individual that I shall consider this morning.

I might suggest to you that perhaps the largest single problem confronting us now is the danger of our not advancing with sufficient speed in the direction of becoming an autonomous profession. It would be a very difficult thing indeed for physicians and surgeons if legislatures, political executives, the public generally speaking, would constantly interfere with the expert performance of duties in that profession, but that is exactly the situation which has faced, and will continue to face, the teaching profession.

I want to call your attention to four distinct tendencies that are present in our current or contemporaneous social or political life that are deserving

of our attention. In the first place, our public education has never adequately escaped from the domination of politics. Great progress has been made in this direction, giving the schools a certain independence which is comparable to that which has been possessed by the courts. Courts and schools do not deal with contemporaneous issues, with transient values and with the bitter, unsolved controversies of the press. Courts and schools deal with fundamental matters, on the one hand the established law, and on the other hand of established truth and fundamental principles. We still have to do a very great deal in developing the independence of this important branch of government, because in a democracy education is certainly one of the great guarantees to the citizenship which provides for law, order, cooperation, and progress.

The second thing to which I would call your attention is that under the stress of modern economy and current ideals of government there is a constant tendency towards centralization in the management of the government. In the municipalities there is a growth of the commission and the managerial form of government. In state political administration there is the development of the so-called "Administrative Code," all a means to gain physical economy, largely by centralization, but every time these laymen or lawyers or fiscal managers in government proceed to centralize power, they leave out the courts, they tend to drag the schools in, and unless the profession as a whole is alert in every so-called plan for economical and efficient management which tends to centralize control, the profession tends to lose its autonomy and the schools their independence. Every movement for the centralization of government should be watched by every school man, otherwise the condition which has been growing for 150 years in America may be partially abandoned and the benefit of school independence lost.

The third thing to which I call your attention does not require any long discussion. This is the disposition of certain classes and groups, sometimes a majority; very frequently a minority, to make the schools instrumentalities of class consciousness or class opinion. There are two ways in which this manifests itself.

In the first place, it tends to manifest itself by the influence of organized groups who wish to use the school for good purpose but for special or propagandistic purposes. I am referring now to all the "Days," "Apple Day," in our country, "Safety Week," "Constitution Week," varying all the way from something to which we can give substantial approval and purpose, to matters not of any great importance to the public, to things which have a purely selfish motive associated with them. Now, there are two evil effects of such movements.

In the first place, they disturb the whole balance wheel of education, where things are laid out in the curriculum and in the time schedule, upon the basis of any scheme of relative value. But what is far more important is that every time we make a change in the teaching system of the public school by responding to local pressure and to organized propaganda, we just

to that extent lose the autonomy of the profession. We get people used to the right of interference, and that is a very dangerous thing.

The fourth thing to which I call your attention is nothing but a modification of the first, that is, the disposition to do it not by local pressure on the school board but to do it by state legislation. I am referring in particular this time to the attack made on Zion City studies by certain religious groups. But this is not a novel situation. Pressure has been put upon legislatures until finally the laws of states are frequently cluttered up with 20, 25, 30, 35, specifications that represent no balanced idea of curriculum making, but merely the pressure of some group with a special interest.

The truth of it is that when we look upon these four tendencies, the profession is actually in danger of losing ground instead of gaining ground. We realize, for instance, that in a democracy we must follow a certain very fundamental line of philosophy, and the best philosophy that I know of for a democratic society, for state and school systems, is the philosophy that teaches that the truth can never hurt a democracy. Democracy stands for the interests of everybody. It certainly, in its opposition to monarchy in the course of historical evolution, did not propose to permit an aristocratic class consciousness to dominate our society, yet when somebody says you shall or you shall not teach a specific scientific doctrine, we are engaging in a great defense against substituting a class opinion for science in public school teaching. It merely means that somebody has grabbed the schools for the sake of grabbing society, and ultimately for the sake of grabbing the government.

The truth is the safest thing for a democracy to rest on.

Now, if these four situations are at all real situations, then one of our chief purposes in the profession is to do everything that we can to get a certain independence in the public school system and a certain autonomy for the profession itself. How is this to be done? Not merely by pointing out things which I have indicated as dangerous things, but we should seek to so organize the profession that we are not, possibly, uttering diverse philosophies, but uttering an educational philosophy in terms of the American social philosophy, so that we can be more or less united.

The difficulty is at the present moment that we are not a teaching profession any longer. In reality we are a profession of educationalists. The one who has the vital relationship with the student is now surrounded by principals, supervisors, superintendents, scholars, textbook writers, scientific investigators, normal school teachers and a whole group of highly important and expert accessories. For the most part they may be performing more difficult tasks than the teacher, but nevertheless they are purely accessory to the actual profession of teaching.

The danger in that situation lies in high specialization, and specialization means a centripetal tendency in a profession, a tendency to see the common problems of our educational life in America from a particular angle, and I would suggest the very great necessity of substituting some centrifugal in-

fluence for the centripetal influence of high specialization in the profession. The way to do it, of course, is in two ways.

The first is for all of us so-called "educationalists," who are not teachers, to remember every working day of our lives just how our job is related to the teacher.

The second is in this day of high specialization to set up a demand on teachers colleges, normal schools and universities, that while they are developing high specialists they should proceed to develop some philosophy of education to keep all this scattered detail working together in some unified scheme. The more specialization there is in this world, the more necessity there is for the generalizer and the relator, and the school superintendent who has to unify all things in terms of relative value, as we have to do when facing all the facts, and is the one person in the world who should demand that the scholarly side of our profession provide an adequate number of philosophers and integrators, to offset the scattering tendencies of so many modern specialists.

I would suggest in addition that this unity of attempts which characterize the profession would go a long way towards developing, because of its common forcefulness upon large public questions, independence and autonomy, which I lay down as the essential characteristics as applied to the educational group.

But I would suggest two more points which seem rather important to me. The first is that we will get autonomy for the practice of our profession from society, and independence in the operation of the public school system just to the extent that we do two things.

The first of these things of which I will speak is that we must not offend the public sense of fair play in the management of their educational interests. I would say that one of the things that we have to do is to remember that professional independence is a comparatively different thing from individual freedom in the classroom. Every profession must have its several restraints as well as its positive obligations. The teacher must work under social limitations. Educational freedom is not identical with personal freedom. When the teacher teaches, he represents organized society and civilization, and not merely himself. Once he enters the classroom he stands for both, more than himself. He must not confuse his private views with his public duties. There is a difference between what a teacher honestly believes as a person and what is proven scientifically or generally accepted socially. The schools should no more be subject to the private partisanship of a teacher than to the organized propaganda groups outside the school. Long since it was settled that we should not impose our private religion and our partisan politics on our pupils. Similarly we have no right, directly or indirectly, to inject our private doctrines or conclusions on current economic and social issues.

There is no difference between the established conventions and those that I ask you to establish. Once we had some differences over religion, and then we said the teacher shall not teach private religion. Then when

it was chiefly a fight over partisan politics in a succeeding epoch, we said, "You shall not teach your own private politics." But the heated issues have now moved on to new grounds, and the burning controversies of today are economic and social. The teacher has no right to impress upon the mind of the child his or her own particular economic or social doctrines.

If there is a distinction between education and propaganda—and there is, in spite of the looseness with which these terms are used—it applies to those inside the school quite as well as those outside the school. The freedom and independence of a teacher in the classroom, like that of a judge on the bench, depends on his own self-restraint and his fairness to the interests of society which have been committed to him. I emphasize this because many teachers do not seem to realize that the professional independence of teachers as a group is directly dependent upon a certain restraint of private views, however sincerely held. Furthermore, many persons in their enthusiasm for educational independence—now I refer more particularly to outsiders—regard the public schools as hardly instrumentalities for social reform, for bringing in the new Utopia. Nothing could be more fatal in the long run than for us to accept this view. Schools do reform their students up to current social standards and ideals. They are reformatory of individuals, not reformatory of society and social institutions. The schools cannot become radical in that sense. The reform of social standards and ideals is better made out in the public forum of adult criticism, opinion and discussion, where all the people may participate and with the decisions left to the mature, not in the classroom, where the classroom is in charge of one particular class or group, namely, the teaching profession, and where it is easy to impress their ideas on the children, because their minds are young and plastic and uncritical. Russia, of course, is using the schools for propaganda purposes. It represents the governmental opinion of those in power. The school system can never represent the opinion either of those temporarily in power upon controversial issues, not yet the opinion of some particular party or class group.

It is the function of the whole of a democratic society, not merely an intelligent class, not even the school teacher class, to settle what shall be the reforms in our civilization. This is not to say that schools do not contribute to progress and reform. They do, but they do it indirectly. Their contribution is through the disciplined and enlightened individual that they send out into society to function as citizens or persons making the current discussion and resolving the public will.

I speak of the importance of these negative considerations and of these needed self-restraints when the teacher enters the classroom, because every breach of the ethics controlling that situation will lead to a deprivation of professional freedom in the classroom and a usurpation of power over the schools through the expression of groups, both politically and socially.

The last idea that I wish to leave with you is a different idea. I do not propose to discuss it in detail, but merely to mention it, to indicate its importance and to suggest its scope. This is the positive principle that

we in the profession of teaching profess: We profess to a certain expert ability that stands far above the powers of the layman. One reason why the lay critics are so iniquitous and why members of boards of trustees untrained in education frequently usurp our functions is that they are not sufficiently convinced of our superiority. Now, expert service is not a simple question. It is not expert service—or expertness is not merely to be described in individual terms. I may be vastly superior to you in some particular line of workmanship, yet I will not enjoy the position of an expert. There is a social side to expertness. First I must be superior as an individual, and second the public must know I am superior and give me the social status of that recognition. Expertness in a profession is largely a matter of social status succeeding individual superiority.

What is the answer? Just to the degree that educational practice becomes more scientific in its spirit, its method and its accomplishments, just to that extent will society leave us alone, give us an autonomy, permit us to perform on them a mental operation, as the doctor can perform a physical operation, without too much outside interference.

Where are the fields in which we must develop the science of education? I am not going to discuss that in any detail, for I will leave that to Dean Russell, but I merely want to make three gestures over the field and permit you to appraise just how far we are presenting an even front on the matter of scientific advancement.

A teacher first of all must know society and civilization. What is this business of education? We have had a lot of definitions, and as fast as they are ruled out we take up a new one. I would say that education for general purposes is nothing but civilizing the child's mind. Now, a great many teachers do not have the culture that represents civilization. They don't know social civilization. They have a lot of speed in teaching but they are not always conscious where the speed and success and efficiency is going to take them.

I am ready to say that the first field in which we must develop a new scientific expertness is in the field of objectives, of knowing our social goal. Now, no single, vague, and general end of education, such as social adjustment or good citizenship or the development of the personal capacity of the child for service will do. I don't believe that the recent statements of eight or ten or a dozen objectives, each supplementing the other, are very much better. What we want are about two or three thousand specific social objectives, and not eight or ten, and certainly not just one. What we want to utilize is the method of job analysis. You know, living today in this complex civilization is considerable of a job, and what the profession needs is a job analysis of civilized life. This should be the basis of the real liberal course of study. Trained investigators should come to the aid of the ordinary teacher by providing the necessary surveys of individual contacts and adjustments with civilization that the child will have to meet. We have scarcely done a thing in the field of sound investigation of life itself in statistical terms.

Not only must we know civilization but we must know the child. We must know human nature. We must know the raw material which we are to transform, and this is the field of educational psychology in which most of the tremendous and revolutionary researches of the last fifteen years have been made.

The third field is in the field of technology, methodology, to use the archaic phrase of our craft. We are diagnosing, we are testing, we are discovering the laws of mind, but how far are we, scientifically speaking, developing a technique of teaching? The profession is always inventing something new, and we are ready to take on something new, because we are always borrowing from each other. We would not have to ponder so often if we were sure the thing invented or borrowed were scientifically right. What we need in this country in the domain of teaching technique or methodology is a new method of research. I would call it "Comparative experimentation in teaching methods." If there are two methods in common use, we ought to know which is the better. We ought to be able to set up the parallel groups, measure ability when we start, and measure the differential in ability at the end.

There are three fields where science ought to be brought to bear, in the field of educational sociology, surveying of life and its objectives, which we have done for the professions but have not done for general education; the field of educational psychology, which is proceeding splendidly; and third, the field of comparative methodology by the experimental method, where we have scarcely made even a beginning.

If we avoid abuses of public trust and make ourselves scientifically expert in the performance of our duties, then you may be sure of one thing, that society will give the schools more independence and the profession more autonomy. The basis of it lies in ethical restraint and in scientific discovery.

THE SCIENTIFIC MOVEMENT IN EDUCATION

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Twenty-eight years ago this month I proposed to Charles B. Gilbert, then superintendent of schools in Newark, N. J., that he give in Teachers College a graduate course in school administration. I told him that prospective school superintendents would be his students, and that his task would be to help them anticipate the solution of the problems which would later confront them in practice. He asked me how much was wanted, and when I replied that a course worthy of graduate credit should be at least two hours a week throughout the year, he exclaimed, "Why, man, I haven't enough to last six weeks!"

Here was a superintendent of schools, one of the ablest of his time, who probably knew as much about educational administration as anyone

in this country, whose stock in trade was so limited that he could tell all he knew in a few hours. Why? Just because he knew only his own school system and the problems that he himself had met. He, like other leading school superintendents, had faithfully attended meetings of this Association and his state conventions, he had visited a few schools in other cities—chiefly for the purpose of recruiting teachers—and I assume he was familiar with the educational literature of the period. But nothing that he did, and nothing that was written in those days, gave him any basis for comparison of his own work with that done by others in different situations. Each school system was sufficient unto itself. Some of them were of outstanding excellence, and some superintendents were eminently successful in meeting the requirements of their particular positions. I could name a dozen who were as outstanding and as successful in their way as any dozen who could be named today. The fact remains, however, that they were individualists, and much of their wisdom died with them. They were artists who pursued their careers untroubled by the scientific foundations of their profession, and they were often impervious to the criticisms of those who tried to analyze their methods.

When one contrasts the prevailing ignorance of thirty years ago, ignorance of facts pertaining to all kinds of schools in all kinds of situations, with what is known today with respect to the business management of school systems, including finance, accounting, building programs, and school equipment, to say nothing of the light cast upon school procedure by the new psychology, one is impressed with the magnitude of the change which has come about under our own eyes. It is this change which gives the title to this paper; it is the scientific movement in education.

The first step in science is taken when one fact is compared with another fact. So long as each school system was considered an entity in itself there was no possibility of developing a science of school administration; but as soon as one system was set over against another system, differences were observed, differences in school organization, in maintenance, in buildings and equipment, in length of school term, in curriculum, in methods of supervising and teaching—all these and many more affecting pupil cost and pupil achievement. Such comparison invites questions and answers. But before answers can be given in dependable form, the extent and nature of the variations must be measured. Measurement in turn demands the establishment of norms—zero points from which variations occur—and standards to which the extent of variation can be referred: the yardstick and pound weight peculiar to each type of noticeable differences.

Inasmuch as education has to do with human nature, it was no accident that the clue to a scientific treatment of school work in all its ramifications was found in the pure science of psychology. Nor is it strange that the beginning was taken in a study of the nature and extent of individual differences. That children differ in mental abilities is no new discovery: teachers have ever been painfully aware of that fact. But so has it been

known from the dawn of intelligence that some things were longer than others and some things heavier than others, and yet the world waited thousands of years for the genius to develop the system of measurements upon which all our physical sciences rests. The genius who invented a method of measuring individual differences in the mental capacity of school children appeared at the turn of the present century. The possibility of ordering and systematizing the chaotic mass of impressions gained from the observation of the mental life of children sent a thrill through professional workers in psychology and education. Never before had such a stimulus been presented for the systematic study of how the minds of children work, how knowledge is acquired, how skills are fixed, how attitudes and ideals develop. The scientific output in this field in the first decade of this century is little short of marvelous—how marvelous we little appreciate because we have been too close to it to see it in perspective.

The psychological deduction that the mental possibilities of the individual are unalterably fixed from birth, confirmed by the biological studies in heredity, has completely undermined the theory upon which education has been based for the past one hundred and fifty years. The invention of standards for the measurement of capacity and achievement, standards still crude but capable of perfection, has shaken the confidence of educators in the doctrine of formal discipline, justified the introduction of new curricula, and questioned the efficacy of traditional methods of instruction. The old education is put on the defensive. Like the Knights of the Round Table, its supporters still do heroic deeds, but clad in armor fitted to each individual and supported by henchmen from their own domain, they come badly off in a contest with opponents entrenched with scientific skill and armed with weapons of scientific precision. The outcome is no longer in doubt. Sometime in the future school work will be based on fact instead of opinion; its faults will be due to indifference to what is known rather than to dependence upon tradition. Then our successors will appreciate how great a revolution has been set in motion in this first quarter of the twentieth century.

No contribution to the scientific movement has been of greater practical worth than the method of statistical treatment of educational data. Without this aid, the findings of investigators might have been left in the limbo of pure science, interesting because true, but not applicable to the work of the everyday world in which teachers and administrators live and have their being. The statistical method gives the means of interpreting the results of research in terms which the practitioner can understand and which he can apply to the situations which confront him. Not isolated facts, but facts coordinated and systematized by statistical treatment, are prerequisite to an understanding of the problems of school organization and school finance, of classification and advancement of pupils, of curriculum construction and methods of instruction, and of all similar problems which yield to test and measurement. No other innovation in educational administration has met with such hearty approval of business men

as the modern budget system and building program—both the result of scientific investigation within the past twenty years. These devices are saving millions of dollars annually to American taxpayers. Of course, total costs have greatly increased, but once faith in the infallibility of formal discipline was lost, no power on earth could have kept school costs down to the level of thirty years ago. Were it possible to reestablish a system of education based on the Three R's in the elementary grades, and on Greek and Latin and mathematics in the high school, that system would be both the cheapest and the dearest that could be devised. Granting that the only way to save money is to get better returns from what we spend, it is apparent that a business-like administration is good economy. If beside these business devices for correcting wastage, mention be made of the increased efficiency in the classification and advancement of pupils, in ways of checking retardation, in the use of instructional materials, in the means of testing and developing proficiency, in the methods of securing interest, in the ways and means of fixing desirable attitudes and habits, and in the adjustment of the school to the child rather than of the child to the school—if these means of increasing efficiency be taken into account, it is clear that the American public is profiting enormously from the introduction of scientific methods into educational procedure.

An enumeration of the direct gains, however, does not tell the whole story. A by-product of the scientific method has become almost as significant as the main purpose. The search for facts with which our educational science deals has led to investigations ranging over the entire field of educational administration. Comparisons have been made of the relations existing between the central state organization and its subordinate units, of state and national policies in education, of compulsory school laws, of school finance and the distribution of school funds, of child welfare and public health, of continuation schools and adult education, of vocational training, of equalizing educational advantages within the state and between states, of professional training and improvement of teachers in service, and of our American ideals and practices in education as contrasted with those of other countries. Not all these problems are susceptible of scientific treatment, if by that is meant quantitative measurement by accepted standards; but if, according to Webster, science is "accumulated and accepted knowledge which has been systematized and formulated with reference to the discovery of general truths or the operation of general laws," then it is clear that in one generation research workers have gone far toward the establishment of a science of educational administration. The mere availability of reliable data spread out in such profusion by the numerous surveys of school systems is a constant spur to those choice spirits who can not rest content without knowing the meaning of things. Out of this mass of materials, now almost unintelligible, they will ultimately bring order and system. And when comparable facts are so ordered and systematized that all unprejudiced observers must travel the same roads to th

same conclusions, we shall have enlarged still further the bounds of the science of education at the expense of tradition and personal opinion.

I would not have it appear from this appreciation of the nature and importance of the scientific movement in education that I consider it the only important happening in our generation, or that the use of available scientific methods reduces the art of education to the precision of a well-regulated machine. The educator does not deal with materials that may be pounded or molded into set patterns. Moreover, the means that he can use with some degree of scientific accuracy are involved with other great forces, social, political, economic and religious, over which he can exercise no control whatever except by way of influencing their course. So overpowering are some of these forces at times that the schoolmaster may be forgiven if, in a moment of depression, he feels that his science affords poor protection against the blasts of unreasoned public opinion.

Of the many influences which have served to mark the trend of public education within recent times I shall comment only on two which run counter to the scientific movement of which I have been speaking: one has to do with the changing world in which our pupils live, and the other with the changing conceptions of the aims of education as reflected in public opinion and legislative enactment.

The world in which we lived a generation or two ago was a small and circumscribed affair. Some one has said that its limits were marked by the distance that a horse could travel in a day. At any rate, the neighborhood was the unit of social contact. The deserted country church with its dilapidated horse sheds is an eloquent reminder of an age that has passed. Poor roads made intercommunication difficult and sometimes impossible. Acquaintance with the outer world was confined to a few newspapers and, outside the cities, these papers came only once a week. But when the paper did come, it was read every word as if it were gospel truth. Doubt had not yet entered the reader's paradise, although pride and prejudice made partisans of all who did read. Nevertheless, the ability to read created a thirst for more reading. Increasing prosperity provided the means of satisfying the thirst. The telegraph brought news from distant lands, and finally the telephone and radio united in blotting out bounds of ocean and continent. The railroad and the automobile have wholly changed the character of intercommunication. Market quotations broadcast from New York tonight dictate what shipments will be made from the ranches of Texas or Montana or California tomorrow. The "movies" and the daily newspaper are to be found in the smallest hamlets, and no one expects "gospel truth" from either. Modern science has come into being by questioning the validity of what had previously been believed to be true, and in pursuing its relentless way, it has cast doubt upon nearly everything that the past held sacred.

It is from such a world that children come into our schools. They read everything—witness the stuff displayed upon our news stands; they go everywhere—witness the automobiles and the railroads; they see every-

thing—witness the movies; they participate in public affairs once reserved for their elders—witness political campaigns and welfare drives; they have organizations of their own inside and outside of school—witness junior leagues, summer camps, church clubs, scouting and the like. With minds accustomed to hear and see every new thing, informed or misinformed on whatever attracts public attention, skilled in discussion at home and among themselves, and unabashed in the presence of authority, these children can not be muzzled in school. No standardized course of study and no uniform curriculum can restrain them or keep them in school. If there are individual differences in the mental capacities of children, there are also individual differences in their personalities, differences due not merely to heredity, but more largely to the interplay of forces inherent in modern life. In my opinion, therefore, the type of pupil in our public schools, particularly the pupil in the middle and upper grades reenforced by ambitious parents, is largely responsible for the type of school and the character of instruction that we have today. The enrichment of courses of study, the differentiation of curricula, the introduction of new subjects, the classification and segregation of pupils, the emphasis upon practical applications and the method of give and take between pupil and teacher would all have come about and been much as they are today if there had been no scientific movement in education. What the scientific movement has done is to justify much that has happened and to give to the educator the means of discriminating between true and false conclusions.

The other side of the picture is equally clearcut. Public opinion has had a part in shaping events. The children's crusade is not the only crusade in history, mediæval or modern. Their elders have busied themselves with perfecting an organization designed to preserve as much as possible of what they consider good in the past and to perpetuate what they think best in the present. The old education was individualistic, just as the old schoolmaster was individualistic. Boys and girls didn't count for so much as they do now: boys were sent to school to fit themselves for leadership. They paid their way and naturally assumed that what they got was theirs to do with as they pleased. But with the coming of public school systems, complete from kindergarten to state university and supported at public expense, it was inevitable that in time the emphasis should shift from individual preferment to social needs. So long as public schools were the refuge of those who could not afford to pay the fees of private schools, they were distinctly class institutions, charitable enterprises, whose support was justified on the grounds that ignorance is a menace to public welfare. Now, with public schools dominant and universal, police control as a motive gives way to constructive training for citizenship. The American public school at present, whatever its virtues or defects, is the measure of public interest in the maintenance of American ideals.

Good citizenship as an aim in life is nothing new. Patriotism, intelligent devotion to civic welfare, wherever found and at all times, bespeaks an education that is consciously acquired. But good citizenship as a domi-

nant aim of the American public school is something new. It brings with it almost a revolution in the choice of materials of instruction within the old categories of school subjects, and it puts an entirely new emphasis upon methods of teaching. It subordinates the disciplinary values of studies which have been conceived as fitting the individual to use his powers in any way that he might wish to the formation of character through precise knowledge and approved modes of behavior calculated to produce a predetermined result. Coupled with military discipline, it has always been the chief reliance of autocratic governments in guarding the safety of the state. For the first time in history, as I see it, a social democracy is attempting to shape the opinions and bias the judgment of oncoming generations. The urge to self-perpetuation may be no less strong in a democracy than in other forms of government, but its realization under democratic control is exceedingly difficult. A thousand American school boards may make more noise, but their voice is not so distinct as that of a Prussian Kulturminister. But we have school boards which employ teachers, determine what shall be taught, and pass judgment on the outcome. Public opinion, back of school boards, fixes our educational creed and controls all our undertakings. Any other control, even state control except within limits, is inconceivable while we maintain our present ideals of American democracy.

The decision given one hundred and six years ago by the United States Supreme Court in the Dartmouth College case has protected private educational institutions from external partisan interference. In Chief Justice Marshall's opinion: A charter once granted by the state confers immortality upon its recipient. Recently, in the Oregon case, another decision preserves to parents the right to choose what school they will for the education of their children, provided that nothing be taught inimical to the public welfare. Now we are awaiting a further decision from the same high court which should elucidate the proviso in the Oregon case: What is inimical to public welfare? May the state use its police powers to regulate the schools and decide what shall or shall not be taught in them? It is difficult to see how, under our system of government, those who provide the funds for school support can be denied the right to decide how such funds shall be used. From the viewpoint of the schools, the Tennessee case has a far wider significance than an imaginary conflict between science and religion. The Oregon case turned on the freedom of learning; the Tennessee case questions the freedom of teaching. The issues involved are of vital importance in the future development of public education. But neither of these issues was raised for a hundred years, and neither of them could have been raised until the public became aware that what was actually taught in the schools had some effect on the character and beliefs of the learners.

The trend of public opinion in matters educational is part and parcel of the tendency of the times to shape conduct by legal enactment. Whether we like it or not, some school boards will sit in judgment on history texts

and some will bar out modern science. The war taught us that German could be eliminated from our schools. Who knows what labor unionists, or chambers of commerce, or Biblical fundamentalists will insist on next? I foresee trouble enough to keep us from stagnation. Once a homogeneous group, bent on having its own way, gets the notion that the schools can be used to promote its particular tenets, that group will surely seek to shape educational procedure. As soon as one group succeeds in influencing school affairs, some other group will rise in opposition and demand to be heard. This is no idle speculation: parties and sects and unions are even now contending for preferment in a way embarrassing to those who look to the larger good. The most hopeful sign is that contending groups may neutralize each other, thus giving the teacher a chance to work out his own salvation.

Again I am obliged to point out that our modern philosophy of education rises to explain what has already happened. It is a case of applauding the champion after he has won his battle. But I am not sure that the battle is won. We accept the dictum that the *summum bonum* of education is the good life, and then we proceed to define the good life as including responsible citizenship, good character, good health, cooperation in service, and similar high-sounding terms. The truth is that all these terms are abstractions which may be interpreted in a variety of ways to suit the vagaries of the user. Scholarship, mental discipline, and open-mindedness, whether they be conceived as aims or as by-products of education, are also abstract terms. If ever such ends as these are attained, it will not be by preaching about them or worshipping them. Scholarship, for example, is not something laid down in a curriculum, or handed over a teacher's desk, or conferred with a degree. It is knowledge, ordered and systematized, that has been built up bit by bit until it has become part and parcel of the life of the learner. The builder knows that he has a long way to go from the making of the sketch to the completion of his building. The putting of 50 or 500 or 5,000 workmen on the job without reference to the skills needed and with no more specific plans than the watercolor drawing of the ideal, will hardly produce the desired result. The builder knows he must have working drawings of every detail; he must pick and choose from the many materials available precisely those best suited to his needs; he must select workmen skilled in the several trades that are required, before he is ready to begin construction. Beam and girder, stone and mortar, brick by brick, find their places as the structure grows and the ideal is finally realized. If builders of character, or of scholarship, or of citizenship had the knowledge and the skill appropriate to their trade that the builders of our modern houses have, and if laymen would put the same confidence in the educator that they put in the engineer or architect, we should be more certain of the product of our schools than we are now.

The implication of my argument is that we need more of science in education than we have yet attained. First of all, we need a better understanding of the actual facts—facts pertaining to what happens within the

schools and facts pertaining to the forces operating outside the schools. A fair start has been made in getting the facts concerning what goes on in the school by way of knowing better the minds of learners and the employment of means for securing better results. These facts are disclosed in increasing profusion through greater use of tests and measurements of school pupils and of school surveys in general. But what of the forces that press so hard upon schools from the outside? How much do we know about them? What of the demands made upon those who leave schools? How do they fit into and fit themselves for the work that they must do, and how do they adjust themselves to the lives that they must live? The truth is that we know little about such things. We act as if we believed that education ends with the school days, but we know that is not true. Can we wash our hands of all responsibility for what happens to our children outside of school and in the years after school? Everybody knows that the most critical period in the lives of young people is the years immediately following school, and the earlier the age of leaving school, the more critical is the period of adjustment. That is the time when the ideals upheld in school either expand into controlling life-motives or fade away into embittered memories. And when ideals fail and ambition ceases, personal discontent, social unrest and social antagonism follow in order. Herein is the origin of crime waves and the most significant cause of waywardness. It is no accident that the majority of our law-breakers are youths in their teens and early twenties. Many agencies can doubtless be used to combat this unsocial menace: home, church, the press, and police power; but whatever the agency, the process must be educational, and it cannot be divorced from our public schools. But before the schools can perform their full part, we must have more knowledge, more accurate knowledge, more scientific knowledge, of what happens to our children outside of school and in the years that follow schooling.

In conclusion, I wish to say to this audience that the stress that I have put upon the significance of the scientific movement in education is intended particularly for our own consumption. Familiarity with the science of education and its promotion through research and investigation are the duty and privilege of our profession. I wish, however, that I could impress upon the American public the significance of the art of education and their duty and privilege with respect to it. The science of education, like the science of surgery, is a personal and professional possession; but the art of education, like the art of surgery, is what is put at the service of the public. The science without the art is mere learning; the art without the science is quackery. Art directed by science is what the world needs and should be willing to pay for. A fraction of the costs of asylums and prisons, of police forces and military establishments, of wastage in trade and industry through inefficient service, would speedily develop a science of education and support artists in education from the nursery school to the university for the benefit of learners from the cradle to the grave, the like of which the world has never seen but of which this world of ours

stands in desperate need. While some of us must bend our energies to scientific study, most of those in this audience have the splendid opportunity of perfecting themselves in the art of our calling. You are conducting your schools more successfully than schools have ever before been conducted in a democracy, you are doing your work more skillfully every year, you are making better and better contacts with your communities, you are guiding teachers into ways of greater efficiency. You will eventually get the recognition that you deserve from an appreciative public. But the acme of your success will be attained when we have a science of education adequate to our professional needs and provocative enough to call forth your finest skill in the service of your fellowmen.

EDUCATION AS A NATIONAL ASSET

HERBERT HOOVER, SECRETARY OF COMMERCE

I have been reluctant to accept the honor of your invitation to address your body, because I feel that no layman can instruct a great profession such as yours, whose traditions and skill have been builded upon a century of experience. Nevertheless, it is the duty of the layman to express the indebtedness which lies upon us to so great a body as yours.

About one fourth of the whole population of our country is always simultaneously engaged in the same occupation—the job of going to school. It is the largest group in any one employment. To use a term of the census, it is truly a “gainful occupation.” Moreover, as nearly the whole people have worked at it at one time or another, no matter how diverse their later life may become, they all have a common memory of the school yard and the classroom, and they all have a lasting affection for some teacher.

Not three other industries in our country can boast of so large a physical plant as yours. Hundreds of millions are invested in new construction every decade, and still, in commercial slang, you are behind your orders, as witness the unsatisfied demand for seats in the schools of every city in the country. Yours is a big business. And it is big in its responsibilities and bigger in its possibilities than any other business ever undertaken by our countrymen. No nation in the world’s history has so devoutly believed in, and so deeply pledged itself to, free universal education. In this great experiment America marches in advance of all other nations.

To maintain the moral and spiritual fiber of our people, to sustain the skill required to use the tools which great discoveries in science have given us, to hold our national ideals, we must not fail in the support and constant improvement of our school system. Both as the cause and the effect the maintenance of our complex civilization now depends upon it.

From generation to generation we hand on our vast material equipment, our knowledge of how to run it, and our stock of intellectual and spiritual ideas. If we were to suppress our educational system for a single

generation the equipment would decay, the most of our people would die of starvation, and intellectually and spiritually we should slip back four thousand years in human progress. We could recover the loss of any other big business in a few years—but not this one. And unless our educational system keeps pace with the growth of our equipment we will slip also.

To you school men and school women is entrusted the major part in handing on the traditions of our republic and its ideals. Our greatest national ideal is democracy. It is your function to keep democracy possible by training its children to its ways and its meanings. We have seen many attempts in late years to set up the forces of democratic government, but many of them are but the forms, for without a literate citizenry taught and enabled to form sound public opinion there is no real democracy. The spirit of democracy can survive only through universal education.

All this has been said often enough before, and lest our national critics should object to its repetition I may add that we don't expect you to teach the gamut of local, national and international problems to children. What democracy requires is a training of mind which will permit an understanding of such problems, and the formation of a reasonable opinion upon them. That the resultant will in the long run be an enlightened public opinion is a hazard upon the intelligence of our race that believers in democracy are willing to take.

And democracy is the basis of human relations far deeper than the form of government. It is not only a form of government and an ideal that all men are equal before the law; it is also an ideal of equal opportunity. Not only must we give each new generation this spirit of democracy, but we must give to them a fundamental contribution to an equality of opportunity through educational equipment.

Some poetic mind called America the melting pot for all races; there have been some disappointments in melting adults, but none will deny that our public schools are the real melting pot, pouring out a new race. Under our schools race, class and religious hatreds fade away. From this real melting pot is the hope of that fine metal which will carry the advance of our national achievement and our national ideals.

Such a result in carrying forward national ideals was bound to accrue from the nature of our educational system. It has called its teachers from the body of the people, and has commissioned them to teach the ideals of the mass as well as the knowledge of the more favored few. It is, therefore, in itself truly democratic. This teaching of ideals is by its nature spontaneous and unstudied. And it has had to be sincere. The public school teacher cannot live apart; he can not separate his teaching from his daily walk and conversation. He lives among his pupils during school hours, and among them and their parents all the time. He is peculiarly a public character under the most searching scrutiny of watchful and critical eyes. His life is an open book. His habits are known to all. His office, like that of a minister of religion, demands of him an

exceptional standard of conduct. And how rarely does a teacher fall below that standard! How seldom does a teacher figure in a sensational headline in a newspaper! It is truly remarkable, I think, that so vast an army of people—approximately eight hundred thousand—so uniformly meets its obligations, so effectively does its job, so decently behaves itself, as to be almost utterly inconspicuous in a sensation-loving country. It implies a wealth of character, of tact, of patience, of quiet competence, to achieve such a record as that.

Doubtless this means, also, that the profession attracts naturally the kind of people that ought to be in it—men and women of character and ideals, who love young people and who wish to serve the nation and the race. Teaching has always been an underpaid profession—though I do not admit that our rich democracy can any longer excuse itself for niggardliness toward those who so largely create its ability and upon whom its whole existence is so dependent. Teachers always have preferred, and probably always will prefer, to lose a little money rather than to lose the chance to live so abundantly in the enriched lives of the next generation. They feel about their work as the critic Hazlitt felt about the conversation of literary men, “poor as it may be, once one has become accustomed to it, he can endure no other.” I have never seen a teacher who left the profession, either a woman who married out of it, or a man who left it for other profession or business, who did not seem to hanker for the old scene where he or she was the leader of a little host that might contain in it the most important citizen of the world a few years hence. Certainly in your collective classrooms today sit practically all the leaders of tomorrow. It has been often said that one of you has a future president of the United States under training for his work; another has a future great artist, a great administrator, a great leader in science. To a mighty extent, that future eminence will be the work of your hands.

Nor is it enough to have trained minds, or even to have implanted national ideals. Education must stimulate ambition and must train character. There have been educational systems which trained the intellect while they neglected character. There have been systems which trained the mind and debauched the character. And there have been educational systems which trained the body and mind and character to effectuate routine jobs while they failed to give either hope, inspiration, or ambition. There are countries whose school systems so depress ambition that the great mass accepts its absence not desparingly but gladly, where for any to attempt to rise above their groove is ridiculed even by their mates. Your results have surely been different. If there is any man in America so dead to ambition as not to strive for a better lot, no member of Congress or officer of the federal government has ever met him. It seems to us at times as if every citizen of the Republic had descended upon Washington, ambitious to get something better than he now has.

In the formation of character you have played a great and an increasing part. Your transformation from the spare-the-rod-spoil-the-child theory of

character building to that of instilling of sportsmanship, leadership, and personal responsibility is making for character faster and better than ever before. I would not go so far as to say, nor, I am sure, would you claim, that you are altogether responsible for the distinctive virtues of the American character. You would yourselves refer to other influences, notably religion and the home, which share with you the responsibility for molding the characters of our young people. But certainly your part, as teachers, is very large in the result. There may be failures in character, and while the educated crook may achieve success as a crook, he does not secure honor or applause. And I am less interested, as you are really, in what you put into young folks' heads than in what you put into their spirits. The best teaching is not done out of a book, but out of a life; and I am sure that measured by this standard, it will be agreed that American teaching has been marvelously productive.

A century of scientific discovery has vastly increased the complexities of our national life. It has given us new and more complicated tools by which we have gained enormously in productivity and in standards of living. It has vastly increased the opportunities for men and women to attain that position to which their abilities and character entitle them. It has necessitated a high degree of specialization, more education and skill. It has greatly reduced the amount of human sweat. It has given the adult a greater leisure which should be devoted to some further education. It has prolonged the period and widened the chance for the schooling of children. And from it all, your responsibilities have become infinitely greater and more complex, for you must fit each oncoming generation for this changing scene.

I could dwell at length upon the economic aspects and setting of our educational system. But I feel even more strongly the need of compensating factors in the nation's assets: learning and the development of science apart from material rewards, disinterested public service, moral and spiritual leadership in America rather than the notion of a country madly devoted to the invention of machines, to the production of goods and the acquisition of material wealth. Machines, goods, and wealth, when their benefits are economically distributed, raise our standard of living. But it requires the higher concept to elevate our standard of life.

And in all these great tests of your work, the maintenance of our national ideals, the building of character, the constantly improving skill of our people, the giving of that equipment which makes for equality of opportunity, the stimulation of ambition to take advantage of it, no greater tribute can be paid you than to say that you are succeeding better than was ever done before in human history. No one pretends that the great American experiment has brought the millennium. We have many failures, but that great and fundamental forces like yours are battling for moral and spiritual improvement is the warranty of confidence.

Our public school system can not stand still in the form and character of its instruction—it must move forward with every advance in knowledge

and it must erect additional bulwarks against every new malign social force. You are permitted but a short term of years in which to infiltrate a mass of ideas into each succeeding generation. Therefore our school system must utilize its intellectual and human material to the very best advantage. Probably the greatest lesson we had from the war was that of the better utilization of all our resources, whether human or material. Before the war many economists contended that any general war could last but a few months. They held that burning the candle at both ends by drafting millions of men away from production of food and other necessities into armies which were bent on destroying vast quantities of material, would shortly bring its own breakdown. But the war revealed that by better training and by the better utilization of men and material we could greatly increase production and decrease waste. The impetus of this lesson continues with us still. One of its results has been to increase the desire for more education and we are overwhelmed by the demands of our youth for further instruction. The astonishing increase in our high school and university attendance is but one of its results. With this has come a renewed earnestness of your profession to reexamine the basis of education to bring this instrument to bear more effectively upon the present world. Your efforts to solve the problems of misdirected education, of better organization of the school system itself, to vitalize its relations to the rural communities, to further integrate our educational systems into the life of the communities, and a host of other problems, are not only great services to the nation but they are also proof of the vitality of your profession and of the fine acceptance of your responsibilities.

Hundreds of demands are made upon you to introduce new strains of instruction. I, myself, as head of two organizations, one for Child Health and another for Safety, have been guilty of such requests. You can not abandon the fundamentals of knowledge and training for the inclusion of everything, no matter how worthy. And most of us are willing to trust to your judgment upon our appeals.

But after all our schools do more than merely transmit knowledge and training; they are America itself in miniature, where, in a purer air and under wise guidance, a whole life of citizenship is levied experimentally with its social contacts, its recreations, its ethical problems, its political practice, its duties and its rewards. Ideals are developed that shape the whole adult life. Experience is gained that is valuable for all the years of maturity. I would be one of the last people in the world to belittle the importance of the exact knowledge that teachers impart to their pupils—as an engineer I set a high value upon precise information—but knowledge, however exact, is secondary to a trained mind and serves no useful purpose unless it is the servant of an ambitious mind, a sound character, and an idealistic spirit. Social values outrank economic values. Economic gains, even scientific gains, are worse than useless if they accrue to a people unfitted by trained character to use, and not abuse them.

I should say that your work, then, is of three categories: The imparting of knowledge and a trained mind, the training of citizenship, and the inspiring of ideals. I should rank them in that ascending order. And I should add that our nation owes you a debt of gratitude for your accomplishments in them.

WHAT IS IT ALL ABOUT?

E. C. HARTWELL, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, BUFFALO, NEW YORK

Recently I picked up a book written by an Oxford dean, which began with these words: "For fifty years I have been a teacher. I am spending the remainder of my days wondering what it was all about." Is it possible that any of us may live long enough to have a similar experience? Year after year we gather at these great conventions to listen to the doctors and hear grave argument. It was seventeen years ago that I came to the first of these conventions. I remember the first speaker to whom I listened. He declared that the educational methods in use in the penal and reformatory institutions of this country were so far superior to those in use in the schools, that very many boys were deliberately becoming criminals in order to take advantage of them.

The next year I heard another speaker declare that ninety percent of all the crime in this country was caused by the study of algebra. I had always disliked algebra as a boy, but never knew until then the reason.

The third year a great speaker, from one of our great universities, predicted that they were shortly going to burn every course of study, destroy the desks and throw away the textbooks. I knew what my board of education would say to that. And for the next ten years one or more of the speakers to whom we continued to listen continued to denounce what we were doing. During the same decade we coquetted with simplified spelling and military training. One year we "socialized" and another year we "standardized" and still others we "motivated." We have issued ringing resolutions from this Department about pretty nearly everything under the sun.

I have even known young inexperienced men to go home from these conventions and actually try to reorganize their schools in harmony with the theories advanced by some of our prominent speakers, only to learn later from these same speakers, that they had not meant their theories to be taken seriously. They were designed merely for stimulus.

The public has had a right to wonder whether we know what it is all about.

Now, the fact of the case is that our membership has a far better understanding of what it is all about than some of the platform utterances of some of our speakers would indicate. If this convention were asked to answer the question in seven minutes, the result might read something like this:

"We believe that the fundamental principles of the public school of today are what they always have been, to train the pupil for character and citizenship, to stimulate his zeal for knowledge, to develop the power to think clearly and properly, to lay the foundation of an education by a thorough training in the fundamental subjects.

"We believe that the ideal system of public education will give to every boy and girl a sound, vigorous body, an intelligent understanding of the laws of health, high ideals of useful service, and a desire and a capacity to render such service. It will inculcate in these boys and girls habits of reverence and honesty and thrift and industry and fidelity in the discharge of responsibilities.

"It will develop a generation of citizens with an intelligent understanding of the meaning of democracy, as distinguished from disorder, and a thorough comprehension of the theory of a representative government.

"It will give to its graduates a capacity for enjoyment which is innocent and elevating and refining.

"It will produce attitudes of mind indispensable to the intelligent and pleasurable use of leisure time.

"It will emphasize in every possible way the importance of worthy home membership.

"We believe that the attainment of these objectives would represent very nearly an ideal system of education, and that if in reach for the stars we have discovered the shortness of our arms, there is still much in the way of progress of which we have every right to be proud."

In spite of the prevailing note of criticism we have an ever-increasing measure of public confidence and support.

In communities where from thirty to sixty percent of all the local taxes go to schools, there is obvious progress in securing recognition of the importance of educational service.

We have more teachers with training for their work than ever before in the history of the country. Wherever possible we have substituted scientific measurement for mere opinion. We know that a knowledge of our children as the fundamental subject grows better all the while. We believe in our boys and girls. We believe in what we are trying to do, and we know better than anyone else how far short we fall from the high ideal we have set for ourselves.

We wish, as superintendents, that our capacity for wise educational leadership might be greatly quickened and increased. We wish we might have more time to exercise it, and that less of our energy were consumed with building programs and budgets and legislation.

It is getting increasingly difficult for me to find a superintendent of schools who has time to talk about education. We wish we could greatly increase the number of teachers who realize that it is more important to teach boys and girls than it is to teach subjects, teachers who are more concerned with what a boy reads than with how rapidly he reads it, teachers who recognize that the right attitude of mind in a graduate is infinitely

more important than the successful passing of the examinations. There is no substitute in methods of organization, money or equipment for this kind of a teacher.

With those objectives ahead of us we are doing our best to know what it is all about.

OUT OF THE MECHANICAL INTO THE PSYCHOLOGICAL

DAVID B. CORSON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, NEWARK, N. J.

Recently a friend, who had moved from New York to a great city on the Pacific coast, said to me that even the moon was different in that climate and environment. Mine host, in further conversation upon the delights and advantages of life in Southern California, asserted that for two thousand years the earth had been in the sign of the fish and was now passing into another constellation, which fact was ushering in a new civilization, the center of which would ultimately be the rapidly growing city where he lived. While not prepared to either accept or reject this somewhat fervid statement, it suggested the changing conditions in the educational world.

The increase in the size of schools in our great cities magnifies the mechanical features of administration. Great numbers of pupils under one principal are common and few protests are heard of the danger to real education. Construction and operating costs are saved, but the mechanized organization and management do not contribute to the welfare of the children. The machinery tends to crush the personality of the pupil and to make him conform to a well defined type of submissive, closely adjusted, and mechanically managed individual. A cooperating and interested child is quite different from the human school machines which over-mechanized schools are apt to develop.

The success of a pupil is dependent largely upon whether he conforms or not. For him to pass from grade to grade requires the attainment of a standard accepted as a measure of fitness. The reasoning is that if a pupil has not done a required percent of the work acceptably he should not be promoted to a higher grade, there to flounder and cause anxiety to his teacher, making the difficulties of mass instruction greater. The pupil passes through the elementary and secondary courses and is admitted to higher institutions on a mechanical plan mechanically administered. The secondary courses everywhere are measured in hours—a purely mechanical contrivance to insure the completion of the required work. It is a quantitative and not a qualitative education that we are encouraging pupils to obtain. There is not, under such conditions, the love and joy in achievement that ought to exist. Mechanized schools and the quantitative measurements generally used influence children differently. The majority withstand the rigors of the system but a large minority become discouraged and fail. These failures cause unfriendly criticism of the schools. Are the

schools failing? No: only with these failing children. Are the children educable? Yes, even the mental defectives are trainable and the physically handicapped, educable. The explanation appears to be that conditions cause us to accept failure complacently, as a necessary evil, and to acquiesce in it. There must be a reversal, particularly in the elementary schools where are the great mass of the children. There must not be failures but adjustments of schools, of curricula, of procedure. Particularly there is needed a more vital and more personal interest which shall submerge the mechanical so long prominent and influential.

As long as introspective psychology gripped us we were weak in our practical use of its findings, but now that we are taking account of the behavior of children and reasoning about it, there seems to be cause for encouragement. There are several significant facts which indicate that we are passing out of the sign of the mechanical into the constellation of the psychological.

It is acknowledged that children have different capacities, but school practices hitherto have been in accord only partially with this truth. We now agree that they should be classified in homogeneous groups according to their ability. This does not necessarily imply the acceleration of the bright children, nor the retardation of the slow. It does mean the adjustment of work in quantity and quality to the abilities of the children; so that the organization of the school shall not be a handicap in their education.

The methods of individual instruction now in experimental use are additional evidences of the passing from the mechanical to the psychological in our educational practice. The opportunity for the individual to work, freed from the hampering and crushing influence of the mass, seems assured. Under these various plans there is the stimulus to self-activity, initiative, perseverance. Individuals may function differently. The pupil uses his powers to the utmost and becomes self-reliant. This educational adjustment is very promising for the future.

In the study of the so-called special subjects there are situations that require the use of all the child's powers. The first-hand dealing with things in which his mental powers are exercised tends to break down the formalism of the schools. The value of these subjects justifies even greater place than is now given them. They should no longer be considered incidental and special but fundamental, since our purpose is to educate and not merely to impart information through routine study.

The use of tests requiring pupils to discriminate and to exercise other psychological powers must in time have a great influence on our educational procedure. It will result in specific training in the development of perceptive power. For years we have talked about teaching elementary science in the lower schools for this purpose, but have done little. The efforts were desultory and incidental until the platoon school was established. The plan of organization provides a definite time and program for this important activity. Other opportunities are provided for

real educational effort by pupils, notably in the auditorium. It is thus becoming more and more possible for a pupil to be a participant rather than a mere spectator in educational activities.

The children in their games have the greatest opportunity afforded by the school curriculum for the exercise of their powers. In sports there is a constant necessity to make quick decisions of real importance in winning. The pupil is responsible to his mates. The urge for his utmost exertion is great. All his powers are on the *qui vive*. He wants to succeed. The motivization is tremendous. The value of this is readily acknowledged. It cannot be too strongly commended as a condition to work for in all school subjects and activities.

Additional evidence of the change suggested is seen in the establishment of departments of psychology or child guidance in school systems. These departments are just now functioning more particularly for subnormal children. They may well extend their work to "problem" children of all types, and in time may become tremendously influential even in dealing with normal children. It is conceivable that under such influence, teachers may come to value psychology and to use it as merchants and salesmen use it. This will be a long step forward in the development of the individual personality of children. It is possible that child guidance departments may become indispensable in the administration of school systems seeking to choose between the mechanical and the psychological and to give a qualitative rather than a quantitative education. When that time arrives the dignity and splendor of the teacher's work will be even more fully appreciated than it now is.

IS 'THE HIGH SCHOOL A PART OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM?

WILLIAM J. BOGAN, ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

A depressing feature of the American high school is its loose articulation with the elementary school. Dominated by the college, fostered by the college, provided with a ready-made college preparatory curriculum, the high school overemphasizes the subjects demanded by the minority. It was organized as a "select" school and has not completely outgrown the definition of the title. The word "select" in the private school vocabulary meant the socially elect. To bar the socially undesirable pupils it seemed necessary to set up social restrictions, but in the high school exclusiveness is secured more efficiently by a system of academic restrictions. For years the barriers labeled Greek, Latin, and Algebra restricted education to one narrow type—the classical. The unfortunate pupils who lacked the ability, the desire, the leisure or the money to master this type of education were out of luck. Education was not for them. At least school education was not for them. Conditions have improved in recent years. Science,

shop work, drawing, commercial subjects, and other practical and liberalizing features have been added to the curriculum, but the slaughter of the innocents still continues, though in lesser degree. The high school does not appear to be part of the public school system. In fact the phrase "public school" in the minds of many people still maintains its old significance of elementary school. "Graded school" is a phrase that speaks for itself. Each grade fits in to the one above and each is presumed to be as well adapted as the others to the children of particular grades and ages. A well graded curriculum, that is, one well fitted to the needs, abilities and interests of the pupils of the various grades will show about the same percent of successes or failures in each grade. This statement holds true in practice in our best school systems, but the high school, though nominally part of the graded system, seems to be outside the laws of the system. To illustrate: the average percent of failure in our elementary schools is 9, but in the first half year of the high school the average is 16. In English it is 15, in modern language 16, in history 17, in commercial subjects 17, in mathematics 19, in Latin 25. The high school appears to be outside the graded system.

The high schools belong to the people, to the majority. Educators are their agents. If the people understood that the high schools in this day are truly select schools providing education for the few at the expense of the many they would insist upon a change. For many years leading educators have dreamed of the high school as a people's college but the tendency to maintain college standards for non-college students is too strong to be overcome in the near future. The change is coming slowly but it may come suddenly and disastrously unless educators are guided in their leadership by the principles of science.

When I was a boy one of my heroes was old Joe Soulier, a French pilot whose only task in his declining years was to pilot the Gunboat Michigan twice each summer through the tortuous channel of St. Mary's river to the Soo. The captain of the Michigan had great confidence in Joe, and would trust no one else to handle his ship. Whenever the gunboat entered the harbor of the small town where Joe and I lived everyone knew that the captain was in need of a pilot. On these momentous occasions I would run down French Lane to Joe's hut and pound at the door as I shouted, "Joe, the Michigan." When I heard "Je suis ici" from within, I rushed back and reported to the captain that all was well. Joe was coming. A few minutes later Joe would mount to the pilot house and proudly take command. His system was a by-guess-and-by-golly one but it worked so long as conditions remained stable. As he went up the river he would steer for a large pine on the right until he "picked up" another landmark on the left. Thereupon he would head for the new mark until he picked up another. This method kept the boat always in the deep channel. One of his never-failing guides was a large hill near Hay Lake channel. Like many educators Joe knew foreign conditions better than local ones. His only newspaper was published in Paris. Hence he did not learn until too late

that the government dredges in cutting the channel had picked up his hill and carted it away. When Joe tried to "pick it up" he found that the government had beaten him to it. As a result of a lack of scientific information the Michigan went on the rocks and Joe went out of commission as a pilot. Educators, by following too closely the sign posts of tradition, and precedent sometimes meet Joe's fate. It is a good educational system that can keep in advance of those whom it educates.

Another disturbing feature of the high school is its airy elimination of subjects taught in the elementary school. There time and money are given lavishly to instruction in subjects that are ignored in the high school. Much of the value of penmanship, arithmetic, reading and other elementary subjects is lost because little attention is given in the high school to their conservation. Is there any justification for discarding the skill acquired in the grades? Silent reading is taught in the grades but investigations show that in the comprehension of reading matter high school seniors frequently fall below the attainment of freshman. Penmanship receives little attention except in commercial courses, although courtesy and economics require good penmanship from every one. Spelling, too, is taught in the elementary schools but is promptly relegated to a few English classes in the high school. It is taught incidentally and therefore accidentally. Another subject stressed in the lower grades is accuracy in computation. There the proving of results has become a settled policy, but in the high schools accuracy seems unimportant. The business and industrial world have good cause to complain of inefficiency if it is found that twelve years of schooling is not sufficient to teach the accurate addition of a simple sales slip.

Superintendent McAndrew tells of the pride which he and his school derived many years ago from the fact that in the city-wide contests for speed and accuracy in arithmetic they always stood at the top of the list—in speed. True, they were rather low in accuracy, but this fact did not lessen their pride until a critic asked how speed could be so completely divorced from accuracy. "Not until then," says McAndrew, "did I realize that this remarkable record meant that my school was always the first to get the wrong answer."

It may be that the difference between the elementary and the high school is so great that "never the twain shall meet" but no one in this audience would dare make such a confession. To use the figure of a famous superintendent: "Our educational system is a huge cave in which the high school is a stalactite made from the drippings of the college. Below it, but not in plumbline with it is the elementary school, a stalagmite made from accretions of many kinds. An educational plumber is needed to wipe the joint." The revision of the curriculum gives him the opportunity to become a national benefactor by fitting the high school to the public school system.

THE COMBINED COUNTY AND CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS

LAWTON B. EVANS, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, AUGUSTA, GA.

The thought of the profession has long been upon the improvement of the rural schools. The country school has not kept up with the city school, because the farmer has not kept up with the city man. Of late we have begun consolidation of rural schools and transportation of pupils doing away with the one and two room schools, and building six, eight, and ten room schools, with all modern appliances and courses. We have made a beginning only.

Of the twenty-five million children in the public schools of America there are twelve million in rural schools, and small village schools. Of them nearly five million are in the one room, one teacher school. One fifth of the school population of the entire country is taught in country or small village schools of one room. Consolidated rural schools have nearly three million or about twelve percent. It is this large proportion of our school population that should demand our attention from the standpoint of organization.

The time has come for us not to have country schools as such and city schools as such, but all of them schools, some in the country and some in the city, and each fully equipped to prepare the pupils for their life's work.

It is to our economic advantage to nurture conditions that improve life in the rural districts. This we seem to forget or ignore until city life and farm life, city people and country people, have become different types, to the disparagement of the farm. The farmer has too long been a caricature in art and literature. It has not done him justice, has been to our disadvantage, and has not encouraged his sons to be like him. No boy is willing to grow up "a hayseed" if that is what the world thinks his father is. He becomes envious of the city boy and hates the farm.

We have lately aroused to this condition and given the farmer better roads, rural telephones, rural mail delivery, farm demonstrators, county agents and a few other things, to keep him on the farm, all of which the city helps to pay for. But when it comes to schools for the farmers' children the cities have been singularly aloof. The result has been that the city schools of America are wonderful schools but the country schools of America are not. This has made the farmer dissatisfied. He wants wonderful schools, too—but he and his tax paying district cannot afford them. They need help.

We can remedy this condition and check this urge of city advantages by making farm life attractive, and furnishing the right sort of schools to farmers' children, but the cities which have wealth must help pay for them.

The County Unit of Organization will organize the whole area of our country, regardless of city lines. Instead of being good in city spots we will be good everywhere in county area. There will be no difference in the individual community emphasis. Wherever a good school is needed it should be placed, whether by the asphalt or on the highway.

What is the scheme? One board of education composed of members from the rural districts and city wards in proper proportion will have one school fund for the entire county, there will be one requirement for teachers, one length of school term, one salary schedule, one course of study, one superintendent, one body of supervisors. The advantages of education will be evenly distributed regardless of city and county lines.

This will be economical for it means a reduction of overhead expense. It will bring expert supervision in rural schools for it will mean better salaries for supervisors and superintendents than rural schools unsupported by city appropriation can afford. It will mean better teachers and better teaching and better buildings. It will bring the schools in the country up to the same standard as the schools in the city, for there will be but one purpose in the mind of the administrative board, and that it is to care for all children regardless of where living.

Wherever this plan has been tried it has worked well. Some states are organized on the County Unit plan. In other states some counties are thus organized. Those states and counties can testify that when the wealth of the city comes to the aid of the schools in the country, there results a happy combination that is to the advantage of both.

ADDRESS

CURTIS D. WILBUR, SECRETARY OF THE NAVY

In the harbor at Charleston Navy Yard, Boston, lies the *Constitution*, familiarly known as "Old Ironsides." We are asking the schools of America to recondition this ship. I see that this morning you are all properly decorated, because the school children of the Hawaiian Islands contributed their quota before the public officials of Boston were willing to allow the campaign to be carried on in the schools of Boston, where the ship lies.

I think only a few words from me will be necessary, and I am very sorry to interrupt this singing, which I very much enjoy, but perhaps a few words will be necessary.

You see on my right a model of the old *Constitution*, and below is the sail plan of the *Constitution* gotten out from the files of the Navy Department for the purpose of reconditioning the ship, allowing people to see something about it.

The purpose of asking the school children of America to contribute to the reconditioning of this ship must, I think, be obvious to those of you who are charged with the responsibility of educating the young people in principles of patriotism, and devotion to national duty and loyalty to the principles of the government of the United States.

This campaign authorized by Congress and by the President of the United States has for its purpose the reconditioning of this historic ship, which was started under the authority of an Act of Congress signed by

George Washington when President of the United States, a ship whose history is almost a parallel of that of the United States. The obvious and easy thing to do was to ask Congress to make the necessary appropriations. My contact with school children as a judge of the juvenile court, and in other capacities, led me to believe that it was vital that if this ship should be reconditioned, she should find a place in the hearts of the school children of America.

They tell a story of a sea captain who was in New York harbor with his ship. An American citizen wished to go aboard at a time when visitors were not allowed. When he was told that visitors were not allowed he remonstrated with the officer of the deck somewhat in this fashion: "I want you to understand that I am one of the owners of this ship, and that as such I am entitled to go aboard." The officer of the deck reached down and picked up a rope yarn and handed it to this man, and said, "Here is your share, get out."

And now we are reversing that process. We are asking individual school children to pick up a rope yarn and hand it to the school authorities and transmit it to the Navy Department, and with these rope yarns, and these splinters, we hope to bring this ship back to her original condition.

Those of you who have not had the pleasure of visiting this ship should know that she is today substantially in the condition that she was when first launched, with the exception of the fact that some of timbers are decayed to the point where you can grasp them in your hand and crush them to powder; that she will require complete reconstruction in order to again be seaworthy, but today you see on her deck the same guns, the same type of equipment, the same accommodations, which were utilized by Captain Isaac Hull and his successors in their victories during the War of 1812.

I have been asking myself what, no doubt, many of you have asked yourselves since you came to this capital of this great nation, what after all is the United States of America? Upon what is the government founded? You will find a yellow parchment on exhibition in the Library of Congress and you will be told that that is the original Constitution of the United States. If you visit the National Museum you will see a monument on which a code of laws is inscribed, the code of Hammurabi. One is vital, pulsating with life, because it is inscribed not on parchment, but on the hearts and in the lives and in affections and loyalties of the American people. The other is a dead code of dead people.

The point I am suggesting to you is one no doubt that you suggest frequently to the young people under your supervision, that after all the loyalties of life are heart loyalties, and we wish that through the study of the history of this ship, through a recognition of its name as associated with the Constitution, a study of the dramatic story of her fight with the Barbary pirates, which would interest any boy, the dramatic story of her duels and her escapes in the War of 1812, the children who today ride in automobiles and are taught in schools costing tens of hundreds of thousands of dollars, shall realize the humble beginnings of this Republic.

The President of the United States has authorized a competition of essays in the various schools—I will not take the time to give you the titles, but bronze and silver and gold medals have been provided, hundreds of them, to be given to the school children who write the successful essays in competition, and means have been adopted to bring to the attention of the schools the plans for reconditioning of this ship.

One obstacle has been met in this connection, one with which you are familiar, the prohibition against the solicitation of funds in the public schools, a prohibition which I would not like to see changed, but we are asking a voluntary tax; we are asking the children, who are not compelled by taxation, to make a contribution of four or five cents. It is true that the government of the United States could provide the funds, and it could do it by putting a tax of one cent on each package of chewing gum, and thus compel the children to recondition this ship but we are asking you to assist us in presenting this in such a fashion that the slight sacrifice involved will be readily taken over and will add to the interest of the children in this ship and its history. I wish I had time to tell it to you. You cannot give me the time, and I cannot take the time, even if given to me, but it is a story that will thrill the young people when they visualize Decatur on the deck of the *Constitution* defying three powers in the Barbary states, provoking and settling—or rather, beginning and settling—two wars after he had settled the war he had been sent over to terminate—three wars begun and ended in thirty days.

Now, I cannot stay longer with you, because of your program. I ask you to look at this simple model of the old ship and compare it with the new *Saratoga* and *Lexington*. One of the exploits of Captain Isaac Hull was sending out rowboats, as you would call them, cutters with men in them, to tow the ship. I asked the Chief of the Bureau of Engineering how much horsepower they got by sending these men forward, and he said about forty additional horsepower. The sails of this ship would give her a speed equivalent to about 600 horsepower in a fair wind. The horsepower of the *Lexington* and *Saratoga* combined are 360,000—180,000 each. As we have come to these larger things, may I ask you to assist us in bringing to the attention of the school children the humble beginnings of this great republic, and to focus their hearts' affections not only upon the flag but upon the *Constitution*?

I thank you for your very courteous attention, and wish to express my pleasure at the opportunity of speaking to you, and my regret that I am unable to attend your meetings and get the inspiration which you bring to each other and will carry out to the schools represented by you, but I ask you to cooperate with us in this system of voluntary taxation of the children of America, in order that they may have an interest in "Old Ironsides," and her stories and history.

THE MAJOR OBJECTIVES OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

GEORGE R. STALEY, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, ROME, N. Y.

There was once a railroad president who had laid on his desk the report of an employee showing unusual application and fidelity to duty. This man, the report showed, had worked for the company continuously for twenty years in the same position without the loss of a single day. The next time the president rode over the line which passed through the town where this man was engaged, he made it a point to stop and look him up. He inquired for "Bill" Jackson. "Bill," he was informed, was out in the yard. He went out and found him busy—also colored. "Is your name William Jackson?" he asked. "Yes, Sah, my name is Bill Jackson." "And how long have you worked here?" "Twenty years, Sah. Never lost a day, Sah. Not a day." "What kind of work do you do?" "Well, Sah, every time a train comes in I takes my hammah and goes over all the wheels on every car. Taps 'em with my hammah like this, Sah. Never misses a single car. Never misses a single wheel."

The president said: "That's fine;" and as he mentally calculated what kind of reward such a man should have, he asked his final question. "And now what do you tap these wheels for?" And the faithful Bill answered cheerfully: "Damfino."

Have you never wondered as you have watched a formal exercise in physical training whether any of our physical training teachers have some slight mental relationship to the redoubtable Bill? Are they getting anywhere or are they going through the motions? If there does exist some cloudiness regarding their objectives then it must be at least as much the fault of us who are supervisors as it is of those who actually carry on the work. Certain it is that physical education lends itself to routine to such an extent that objectives are easily lost sight of. These objections vary with the physical and mental variations of the three major groups of pupils which are to be recognized in every school.

There is the group who by careful physical examination are found to be physically defective in ways which can be minimized or eradicated by an individually prescribed course in physical exercises, diet, and habits of health and hygiene.

There is at the other extreme a second group whose natural tastes and experiences lead them to place an exaggerated value on and to give an undue amount of time and thought to that form of physical education we call athletics. These, of course, are the ones least in need of attention.

Then there is the group between these extremes and larger than either of them physically and mentally capable of wholesome participation in games and in other forms of physical exercise, who avoid everything they are not compelled to do, and who take their enjoyment in sport vicariously by standing on the side lines and watching the most expert of their fellows perform what they might much more enjoyably and beneficially be doing themselves.

Our courses in physical training all look well on paper, but in actual operation they are likely to be weak on one end, crazy on the other and clock-worked in the middle.

Wherever physical deficiency is found careful diagnosis must prescribe the corrective exercises and daily regimen which will accomplish improvement. This improvement must be carefully noted by means of measurement, scales and comparative data. Proving progress week by week and month by month is the only way to maintain the individual pupil's interest and cooperation in this effort.

In all groups, likewise, enjoyment is possible in some kind of health-giving spirit-lifting game if universal participation is the accepted rule, and if the feeling is eliminated that unless one excels in one game to the degree that he may represent his school on some team that competes with another school, then there is no use of "going out" at all. With this large group the principal valid objective is to create a wholesome interest in games for the games' sake, without thought of glory or sport page notoriety. An athletic "hero" is an anomaly in any American high school. The fact that one boy is a "hero" is frequently the most effective deterrent against some other boys entering the game at all, since he knows he is not the stuff of which athletic heroes are made.

Athletic hero-worship is pernicious also because it substitutes means for ends and distorts in the public mind the purpose of education. This must always be more largely mental than physical.

I doubt if any high school principal will contradict the statement that what we refer to as institutions of learning are grievously handicapped in their real purpose by increasingly great numbers of boys and girls who are content to "hang on by their teeth." These put the minimum of effort on their school work as the disagreeable but necessary price of membership in the student body. For membership in the student body gains for them their own paramount purpose of participating in the athletic and social affairs of their group. Happy is the school whose "school spirit" holds scholastic achievement in as high and as general admiration and support, as it does the victories of its picked athletic teams.

But games when played for the games' sake develop courage, develop self control, develop initiative, develop the sense of justice and fairness, develop aptitude for working with others, develop friendships, all of which find their consummation in that intangible thing we call character. The athletic field, the playground, and the gym take rank with the school-room, the family fireside, and the temple of worship as the places where character of strength and fineness are produced under the most favorable circumstances.

Sir Henry Newbolt once wrote a poem which bears the title "He Fell among Thieves." It tells the story of a young Englishman who was taken captive by bandits in India. In his stubborn resistance he killed one of their number, he was sentenced to die at dawn. He flung his empty revolver down the slope and climbed alone to the eastward edge of the trees. All

night long he brooded. He heard not the roar of the river and he did not see the starlight on the hills. What he saw was his boyhood home with its little schoolroom, the April sun shining on his books, the wistaria trailing in at the window. He heard his father's voice from the terrace below, calling him down to ride.

He saw the gray little church across the park
The mounds that hide the loved and honored dead,
The Norman arch, the chancel softly dark,
The brasses black and red.
He saw the School close, sunny and green,
The runner beside him, the stand by the parapet wall,
The distant tope, and the crowd roaring between,
His own name over all.
He saw the dark wainscot and timbered roof,
The long tables, and the faces merry and keen:
The College Eight, and their trainer, dining aloof,
The Dons on the Dais serene.

And as one picture succeeded another it was dawn. He rose strong on his feet and strode to his ruined camp below the wood. He turned toward the dawning light which chilled the blood-red snow peaks to a dazzling white and cried:

"O glorious Life, Who dwellest in earth and sun
I have lived, I praise and adore thee"
A sword swept.
Over the pass the voices one by one
Faded and the hill slept.

It is a moving and memorable picture of a brave man facing fate clear-eyed, steady-nerved, strong-souled. A lover of life, yet meeting death unafraid because of a character strengthened and sweetened by the balanced influences of youth which minister most effectively to heart and mind and body.

Glory is an eloquent word but it is not a valid objective of physical training. Health, enjoyment, mental balance, human adaptability—these are the legitimate ends and aims of a well-considered physical program.

DEVELOPMENT OF CHARACTER THROUGH WORK

C. B. GLENN, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, BIRMINGHAM, ALBAMA

It has been the custom each year in our school system to select a major objective, or general theme, toward which everything points and around which everything centers. Two years ago it was "Health—The Physical welfare of Teacher and Pupil." The school authorities counted the great cost of sick or physically unfit teachers and pupils and deemed it worth while as an economic measure to drive intensively to reduce the number. The plan in this as in each of the other objectives presently to be named

was not to teach health more but to afford greater opportunity and incentive for practicing healthful living. Certain verifiable results followed, fewer absent teachers, a higher percent of attendance of pupils, and apparently a happier and more optimistic outlook on life by all.

Last year the central aim was "True Sportsmanship." The local press joined the board of education in launching this campaign. The president of the school board personally provided a loving cup to be awarded at the close of the year to the school adjudged to have manifested this spirit to the greatest degree. A committee of citizens selected by the board acted as judges, visited the schools, attended the inter-school athletic contests, observing not only the teams but the student body occupying the grand stands and bleachers. In the efforts of the pupils to excel, sportsmanship was sometimes exaggerated—never a cheer, for example, when an opponent missed the ball or failed to gain distance, but only for the success of one's own team. Courtesy was at times plainly studied, if not forced, sometimes the efforts became humorous and occasionally ludicrous, but the net results were good. In fact the moral tone of the community as a whole seemed to have been elevated following the example of the children. Only one other illustration of "A little child shall lead them."

This year the objective is "The Development of Character Through Work."

An industrial leader addressing an audience of our teachers recently, said, "What concerns industry most regarding the public schools today is the attitude of their product toward work. Technical information, although of great value, is much less important than a wholesome attitude toward work and social obligations."

In my own section,—though having traveled and resided in other sections, I am convinced it is by no means limited to any one locality—manual labor is often regarded as degrading. In the opinion of many this attitude is increasing with the general increase of wealth.

Whether this is true or not certain it is that the attitude with us is sufficiently general to merit attention of those having in hand the training of the youth. There doubtless are reasons why the youth of my own section have suffered greatest from this error. Two races living side by side, certain tasks entirely honorable in themselves were by common consent left to one race to perform. Many a father willingly would have had his boy serve as a porter in a store, or drive a dray in the village, and the boy would have willingly done so, but social customs forbade. While conditions have in a measure changed the effect is still evident.

In the opinion of our board of education the duty of the schools lies in the line of meeting the greatest needs of the people. We do not stand for the type of education that would "give Johnnie a good schooling so that he will not have to work." Hence the present emphasis. No attempt is made by us to define work. Commonly it is taken, I think, to refer to manual labor. This we have accepted without comment. In all the schools opportunities have been found—sometimes purposely created—for

the pupil to work. Says the principal of the Robert E. Lee school (I might have quoted the principal of the Abraham Lincoln school—we have both—both new buildings), “The boys have cut down weeds, helped to level the playground and put shale over it. In doing this they seemed to enjoy using shovels and rolling wheelbarrows.” You rightly say, “Of course, why not?” True enough, but heretofore we have too often had such work done by janitors or special laborers, this year we are depending upon the pupils for much of it. In one of our high school shops volunteer students resurfaced and refinished this year between six and seven hundred school desks for use in their new building. The lunchrooms in all our high schools have been equipped with tables and stools made by the students in the shops.

Nor are the tasks confined to the schools. Each child is asked to select one task at home which he or she is to perform every day. Cards are sent home to the parent with the child’s monthly report. On this card the question is asked what definite work has been selected and whether or not the child does it faithfully, cheerfully, and willingly.

In connection with this campaign an employment bureau has been organized under the guidance of our vocational director. Letters have been sent to employers calling attention to the fact that many students eligible for employment under the child labor law frequently asked the schools to assist them in finding jobs, that there are in the schools a large number of trustworthy, industrious, and ambitious boys and girls, capable and well qualified to fill positions, and that these pupils often wish to assist in paying their school expenses. Experience has taught us that many employers are looking for such boys and girls to enter their organizations. This bureau has brought demand and supply together.

We are not unmindful of the fact that work in itself may have little influence in the development of character. We agree with the industrial leader quoted above, that the *attitude* toward work is the important thing. However, we are convinced that one way, perhaps the best way, to create the proper *attitude* toward work is *to work* and that it is the duty of our schools to provide systematically for this and to encourage the pupils to engage in it.

TRAINING IN CITIZENSHIP—A NEW APPROACH

LEONARD M. PATTON, MASTER, EDWARD EVERETT SCHOOL, BOSTON,
MASSACHUSETTS

For a period of years educators and other thinking men and women, but especially educators, have been endeavoring to evolve a plan for citizenship training that will be more effective than anything we have had in the past. Since 1921 there is hardly a city of importance in the land that has not worked out a new course, or revised its old course, in citizenship or character training. Progressive educators realize that the American youth needs more of this training and, perhaps for the first time in the history of education, are actually making a serious and determined effort to put into *practice* plans that will develop what always has been acknowledged to be the chief objective of all education—good citizenship through character training.

On October 17, 1922, Jeremiah E. Burke, superintendent of schools in Boston, sent a letter to seven masters inviting them to serve as a committee to make a study of the general problem of citizenship training in the Boston schools, and specifically to collect and organize subject matter relating to citizenship, and suitable for presentation to pupils of intermediate and elementary grades. The superintendent imposed no restrictions upon the members of the committee. He stated that this was their problem and that they were privileged to solve it in their own way.

This committee worked for a period of nearly two years before submitting its report to the board of superintendents. Its study covered the known field of character training at that time, including:

1. An intensive study of the excellent work that already was being done in the Boston system;
2. A careful study of all available courses of study in the country;
3. A review of all obtainable printed material—books, magazine articles, and pamphlets;
4. And finally, but in the opinion of the committee, most important, interviews with a number of leading citizens of the city, state and nation.

As a basis for these interviews the following questions were included in a carefully worded letter to each individual:

1. Are we emphasizing the training of the intellect to the detriment of morals?
2. Granted that a good citizen possesses certain virtues and traits of character, how may these be best developed in the pupils of a public school system where are represented many races and many creeds?
3. What are the ethical fundamentals that must be inculcated in our youth? How and where shall they be taught?
4. Have you a definition of citizenship?
5. Who is the good citizen? What are the duties of a citizen?
6. What kind of community activities which can be guided by teachers are adapted to the development of loyalty to city and nation?
7. How can a right attitude towards school, the community, and authority be developed?

8. Should definite time be assigned to the teaching of citizenship? Or
9. Is it sufficient to deal with citizenship training in an incidental manner?
10. What do you think of the modern trend of handing over to the schools the obligations of the parents?

These are a few of the people to whom letters were sent and with whom conferences were held:

Judge Cabot of the Boston Juvenile Court; Frances Curtis of the school committee; Lincoln Filene of William Filene's Sons Company; George A. Gorden of Old South Church; Father Hickey, supervisor of parochial schools; Dean Holmes of Harvard University; Cardinal O'Connell of Boston; B. Loring Young, then speaker of the Massachusetts House; Henry Neumann, head of the Brooklyn Ethical Society; President Snyder of the Chamber of Commerce; Guy M. Wilson, professor of education at Boston University; Frank E. Lane of Milton Academy; Burr F. Jones of the state department of education; Payson Smith, commissioner of education; and Milton Fairchild, chairman of the Character Education Methods Institution of Washington, D. C.

When the time came to formulate, the committee found that it had a wealth of material. The minds of the members were filled to the point of saturation with ideas, theories, methods. The question was, how should they outline a plan that could be adapted to all grades; be comprehensive, yet simple; objectionable to no race, creed, or sect; not a new course of study, but something to be worked into every course; of sufficient merit to warrant consideration and support from the teaching force; not so technical and dead as to repel; planned in accordance with the rules of sound pedagogy, alive, workable, inspirational.

The committee realized that the child is the "starting point, the center, the end of all educational endeavor"; that his development, his growth, his character, is the ideal we are striving for and the thing alone that justifies the time and energy we *give*, and the money we *expend* for education.

The plan, then, had to be based upon the recognition of the child's true place in our scheme of education; his experiences and activities, needs, problems, and have for its main objective his training, through all the subjects of the curriculum, in conduct and character.

The most difficult thing to decide upon was the best method of approach. All were convinced that religion, as such, ought not to enter into the plan. On the other hand, it was felt that the minds of the teachers and children should in some way be focused upon the fundamental virtues, and that these virtues, consciously and unconsciously, should enter easily and naturally into the teaching of every subject.

As a skeleton or framework, it was decided to use Hutchins' "Children's Code of Morals." This was done for two main reasons:

First. This code is known all over the United States and has been accepted as a model code.

Second. The ten laws, plus the one added by the committee, include practically all the fundamental virtues, and are in a convenient form to teach.

The plan was designated "Citizenship Through Character Development."

In the pamphlet there are shown somewhat in detail characteristics resulting from:

- a. The development of the fundamental virtues.
- b. The adjustment of life work to native endowment.
- c. Developed capacity for the right use of leisure.

It is the first phase, however—the development of the fundamental virtues—that the committee has dealt with, primarily.

Following this is a definite plan of study designated for use in all the grades from I to VIII. Then as a guide for the other grades, a specimen outline for grade VI has been worked out in detail with a bibliography for each law, and helpful suggestions, so as to make the outline a real guide and inspiration.

In order that character training might become dynamic, a motive power, in the schools, it was realized that the *plan* must have the hearty backing of the teachers of the city. In order to get this sympathetic cooperation, it became necessary to find a way to get the teachers actively participating. This has been accomplished by a comprehensive scheme emanating from the mind of one of the committee, Joseph B. Egan of Charlestown, by means of which the course in citizenship is being supplemented by the publication of a monthly *Journal of Inspiration*. This journal is being edited and published by committees of teachers under a plan whereby every teacher in every district, at some time during the year, participates in the preparation of subject matter.

The objects of the Journal are:

- a. To bring to each teacher the experience and practice of other teachers along character training lines.
- b. To enrich her own content of knowledge by placing appropriate and timely material within easy reach.
- c. To stimulate, each month, interest in character training education through an iteration of aims and methods.
- d. To interest teachers through personal contact with a concrete embodiment of the character training idea.

The school committee, convinced of the need of character development in the schools and feeling that the proposed plan offered one means of accomplishing this end, very generously offered to finance the Journal and accordingly appropriated the sum of \$5,000 for this purpose.

The first issue appeared last September and contained subject matter dealing with the Kindergarten and all grades from I to VIII. The materials for this issue and for the five succeeding issues were the best that the teachers and principals could gather to help develop right-thinking and right-acting boys and girls. Over three thousand teachers now are actively participating in this work, basing their lessons on the general outline, but converting it through their resourcefulness and the richness of their experience, into a powerful motive force for good.

One of the most encouraging signs connected with the work in character

training in Boston is the sympathetic and intelligent cooperation of various civic organizations in the city; parent-teacher associations, women's clubs, neighborhood improvement associations, etc.

The Women's Municipal League of Boston has made an outstanding contribution to the cause in the form of traveling models. This organization has constructed seventy-six different exhibits, of convenient size, for use in the various schools. Each is designed to teach some needed civic lesson. The models move from school to school in accordance with a plan that allows each school time to study or use a model before passing it on. The preparation of this supplementary material has necessitated a study of the objectives of character education by the donors themselves, for every model they have contributed is designed to teach some civic truth or virtue. This has demanded intelligent cooperation and has been very helpful in linking up the interests of the community with the school.

With such active participation by outside agencies; with the excellent course of study that has been prepared, supplemented by an inspirational magazine; with the financial backing of an interested school committee and the hearty cooperation of a loyal corps of teachers; the course in character training, launched, two years ago, should exert a powerful influence for good in the lives of the boys and girls in Boston.

We have no expectation of creating 100 percent Americans by this plan of teaching citizenship, but we believe that, rightly used, it may raise moral levels a little higher than by the old methods, may lead pupils to study their environment and society at large in a little broader way than has been their wont, and perhaps broaden a little more their ethical horizons.

CHANGES IN THE COURSE OF STUDY FOR THE CITY OF NEW YORK

WILLIAM J. O'SHEA, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, NEW YORK CITY

We have enlisted the cooperation of the teaching and supervising staff in a cooperative revision of our curriculum for elementary schools.

In the short period of time allotted to me, I shall try to present to you, briefly, but as comprehensively as possible, the aims and objectives which we hope to realize through this revision.

In order that you may have a picture of the size of our public school system, let me say that on December 31, 1925, there were 981,745 pupils on register in our regular day schools, which includes the elementary schools, the junior high schools, the high schools, the training schools for teachers, the trade and vocational schools. This figure does not include the continuation schools, evening elementary and high schools, summer schools, and many other activities.

The register of our 539 elementary schools on December 31, 1925, was 856,403. There were 21,955 classes in those schools, which are scattered over the 315.11 square miles which constitute the area of our city.

Of course, there are large numbers of children whose parents were born in various foreign countries.

The state census of 1925 gives the number of aliens in the city of New York as 1,123,200, out of a total population of 5,873,356.

Our problem is complicated by the fact that the large area of our city causes loss of time and energy in bringing committees of teachers and supervisors together at central places, by the very different conditions—economic, social, and racial—which exist in different sections of our city, and by the large number of adaptations and modifications which must be made in our curriculum to meet these conditions.

Our problem is further complicated by the provisions of our state education law and our by-laws. They provide, in substance, for a course of study and for syllabi in different subjects. The word "curriculum" is not used in the law.

The law provides that the course of study shall be adopted by our board of education upon the recommendation of our board of superintendents. Changes cannot be made in it without concurrent approval of both the board of education and the board of superintendents. Syllabi, however, are adopted by the board of superintendents alone. As they need not be submitted to the board of education, they may be changed from time to time by the board of superintendents.

The general differentiation which we have made between a course of study and a syllabus is that a course of study is a graded outline which gives in general terms the subjects and parts of subjects which are to be taught in the various grades, while a syllabus in a subject is an elaboration of the course of study expressed in terms of topics and sub-topics to be taught by the teacher and learned by the pupil.

By making a differentiation between the course of study and the syllabus and their method of adoption, the framers of the state education law intended to give to the board of education, as the representatives of the people, the general control and determination of the subjects which should be taught in the elementary schools, the grades in which the various subjects should be taught, and the major topics which are included in the content of each subject.

On the other hand, they left to the professional staff—the board of superintendents—not only the making of recommendations relating to the course of study, but the exclusive power of writing the syllabi.

This plan makes for a certain degree of stability in the course of study. Where such stability does not become, through over-conservation, an obstacle to change, it is a desirable feature.

On the other hand, the framers of the law undoubtedly sought to obtain the advantage of flexibility by leaving to a professional body, the board of superintendents, the exclusive power to adopt the syllabi in the different subjects, to determine the content of the syllabi within the limits prescribed by the board of education in the course of study, and to modify the syllabi to meet different conditions.

Now, as to the aims and objectives which we hope to realize in our work of revision:

1. One important aim is to place more emphasis upon the subject of health education and to draft richer and more intelligent courses of study and syllabi for this purpose.

In my opinion, health education is one of the fundamental aims of a modern public school system.

Historically, this aim is not new. More than sixty-five years ago Herbert Spencer, who was not the first to present this aim, stated it very clearly and forcefully in his famous chapter, "What Knowledge Is of Most Worth," in considering the "general ideas with which we must set out in discussing a curriculum." (Note that he used the word "curriculum"!):

If anyone doubts the importance of an acquaintance with the fundamental principles of physiology as a means to complete living, let him look around and see how many men and women he can find in middle life who are thoroughly well. . . .

Is it not clear that the physical sins—partly our forefathers' and partly our own—which produce this ill-health, deduct more from complete living than anything else, and to a great extent make life a failure and a burden instead of a benefaction and a pleasure? . . .

If we call to mind how far the average duration of life falls below the possible duration, we see how immense is the loss. It results that ordinarily more than one-half of life is thrown away.

Hence, knowledge which subserves direct self-preservation by preventing the loss of health is of primary importance for as vigorous health and its accompanying high spirits are larger elements of happiness than any other things whatever, *the teaching how to maintain them is a teaching that yields in moment to no other whatever.*

For many years the public schools of our city have had a very comprehensive and efficient health program. There is urgent need, however, for placing additional emphasis on this program; for giving more and better instruction in hygiene, physiology, and related subjects; for reorganizing the work in physical training so that less emphasis shall be placed on the formal and gymnastic aspects of this subject, and more emphasis on the play, games, and recreation phases; for building up health habits which shall function both when the pupil is in school and when he has severed his connection with school; of engendering a "health consciousness," so to speak, so that pupils will think of health in connection with their food, their baths, their clothes, their homes, their companions, their streets and their community generally; in short, with all their activities and environment. Only by implanting this idea firmly in their minds when they are young, by awakening an intelligent interest in this subject, and by giving them information on it, can we hope to lead the pupil to be a health-seeking person, whether child or adult, and to insist on healthful conditions in his social and community environment.

2. A second aim we have in mind is to reorganize and enrich the so-called social sciences—history, geography, and civics—and place such emphasis on current events as may be advisable.

Educational thought has been developing rapidly and, I think, in the main, soundly, in reference to these subjects.

Our courses of study and syllabi in history, geography, and civics were criticized as being too progressive when they were adopted but they have not been revised in some time, and since their adoption new points of view have developed and additional important subject-matter has been placed at our disposal.

These subjects should be taught so that they will make a deep impression on our children's minds and emotions. It is a sad commentary on the teaching of these subjects in our public schools that adults read so little of history and geography in after life and are so poorly informed on civic questions and problems. Worse than all, they glory in their shame and make little effort to remove it.

History, geography, civics, and current events should be among the most interesting subjects in our curriculum. Pupils should love them. The material included in the syllabi in these subjects should have a human interest and a modern application.

No topic should find a place in the course of study and syllabus in history and civics unless it leads toward the realization of one or more of the great aims of these subjects.

Some topics should be included because they tell of the principal occurrences in the development of our nation—of the wonderful story of the growth of the United States from its humble beginnings to its present prosperity and greatness. Some topics should give an understanding of the origin and meaning of our institutions, an appreciation of their value to citizens by assuring to them certain rights of liberty and property. The pupil should learn that government is not an agency of repression but an institution to aid and protect the people in the proper enjoyment of the rights to which they are entitled by our form of government. Some topics should be included because they engender a recognition of and a feeling for what is good and great, or an awakening of sympathy for all praiseworthy human endeavor—no matter where it is found. Again, some topics should be included because they may induce right conduct on the part of pupils, through imitation of illustrious examples or through the formulation of high ideals.

All teachers of history and all topics in the course of study in this subject should foster love of country—real, heart-throbbing, pulsating patriotism.

The course of study in geography should emphasize the human aspect of this subject—the geographical features which make this earth “the home of man”—those features which aid him in his occupations and mode of living and those which interfere with his progress and call forth great efforts on his part to overcome or at least to improve them. The helpful features of climate and topography, the riches of the soil, forests, mines, rivers, oceans and other natural features, should be taught so that the child appreciates their beneficent character. But, on the other hand, the pupil must be led to appreciate that man must raise great dykes and

walls to prevent the ocean from overflowing his land and destroying his home; he must build tunnels through mountain chains, or develop great flying machines which, with heroic airmen, will fly over these mountains so that they may not be a barrier to transportation of mail, commodities, and passengers; he must irrigate, at the cost of much time, labor, and money, large sections of the earth which mother nature did not make fertile.

This point of view makes geography a living subject of the greatest interest and value.

3. Then, too, we hope to improve the quality of the work of the pupils in spoken and written English both by direct imitation of good models and direct training to overcome speech defect; and by interrelating the formal studies in English with the needs for expression by the pupil of his thoughts in speaking and writing.

Some educators are opposed to any formal teaching. I do not agree with them, although I believe that formal instruction may be carried to extremes, may be dull and uninteresting, may arrest thought and may lead to no good purpose. There should be no useless drill, no memorization of forms, nomenclature, rules of syntax for their own sake. Only those parts of formal language subjects should be retained which function in the oral or written speech of the pupils.

Then, too, since the ability to use language fluently and accurately depends to a certain extent at least, upon practice, and since every subject in the curriculum has a language aspect, we hope to make every lesson a language lesson, so that our teachers will realize that correct use of language must be required in every lesson and in every grade.

Indeed, if our teachers realized that expression is the outward form of the inward thought and that the only way that a teacher can be sure that a pupil has clear and accurate thoughts is by his clear and accurate speech, a great advance would be made in classroom instruction.

4. There are many other aims which we hope to realize. Among them I may mention the elimination from all subjects of material which is purely formal or traditional and the enrichment of the courses and syllabi in all subjects, so that they shall be fully abreast of modern knowledge and educational thought. This applies, for example, to arithmetic, spelling, nature study, and elementary science.

Take elementary science as an illustration. We live today in a world which, on its material side, is being revolutionized by science. We see great buildings, bridges, tunnels, highways, aqueducts, irrigation, and water-power projects leaping up as if by magic. Automobiles and auto trucks have changed our transportation methods. The telephone, the telegraph, and the radio have brought remote parts of the earth into close contact, so that, in a sense, distance and time are being annihilated. The boundaries of human knowledge in every branch of science are being pushed back further and further so rapidly that no one can tell what discovery or invention will be made next.

Our children are hungry for the knowledge that science has to give

them. They live in the present, not in the past. They want to know all about these living machines and scientific wonders that they see on every hand. Our schools must teach as much as possible about the camera, the automobile, the method of supplying water to cities, the telephone, the radio, and other important scientific topics.

In nature study, also, we have a problem and a duty. You know our crowded streets and our city conditions—how little our city children know of plants, flowers, and animals—how prone teachers are to emphasize reading, writing, and arithmetic to the neglect of other subjects. But, if a flower is brought into a classroom, every child involuntarily says, "Ah!" Give the children the joy of taking care of plants and animals and they respond with childish enthusiasm and love. Nearly one quarter of a million bulbs grew into beautiful flowers in our classrooms last fall and were exhibited with great pride by pupils in our recent narcissus exhibits.

We have a good course of study and syllabus in this subject but we hope to place additional emphasis on this subject and lead all teachers to love it.

5. Turning to another phase of this question, we are very much interested in the classification of children according to ability and the modification and adaptation of the course of study and syllabi to fit the abilities of children.

We realize that the cornerstone of education is the individuality of the child; that a fundamental principle of education is that children are different in their abilities in every line of work. Scientific study in education is bringing to light surprising differences in children. With such knowledge in our possession, is there any justification for grouping children in a general miscellaneous way by putting the bright, the normal, and the slow in the same classes, for requiring teachers to proceed at an average rate of progress which is too rapid for the slow pupils and too dilatory for the bright pupils—for expecting all pupils to master a uniform course of study and for setting up for all pupils the same standards of attainment? Undoubtedly, the answer is "No" to all these questions. We should put into practice these correlative and interrelated ideas of classifying pupils in accordance with their abilities, of modifying and adapting the course of study and syllabi in accordance with their abilities, and of setting up different standards of attainment for different groups of pupils. There is little value in classifying pupils according to their ability unless the course of study and the standards of attainment are modified in terms of these different abilities.

We intend, therefore, to adopt a uniform course of study and syllabi for normal-progress pupils, and to modify this course, on the one hand, for the bright pupils, and, on the other hand, for slow-progress pupils. These modifications will include not only a modification of the material included in the syllabus by adding some for bright pupils and eliminating some of it for slow pupils, but may result in a greatly different course of study for slow-progress pupils, by introducing different subjects in place

of some of the subjects which are included in the course of study for normal pupils. I hope to see a development in manual and vocational work for those children who will profit most by this form of education.

6. Two other aims which we hope to realize through the revision of the course of study and syllabi, I shall mention very briefly, although they are of paramount importance and deserve extensive treatment.

One of these is the development of the emotional and æsthetic aspects of the child's nature; the other is the development of moral character.

To me, this phase of education is of paramount importance. The schools must perform their full duty of developing in school children good taste and good manners, high and noble ideals, consideration for others, "charity toward all"—those indefinable attributes of personality, outlook, temperament and conduct, for which we use the term *character*.

We must face the crime situation, the lack of purpose, earnestness, and moral fiber of some of our young men and women. All our beautiful buildings, trained teachers, modern equipment, and educational advantages which are showered upon the children without cost, are as nothing unless the young men and women who are the products of our schools can meet the acid test of resisting temptation and leading good, honorable and noble lives.

Today teachers seem to underestimate the importance of this aim of education. Methods of teaching, the imparting of facts and testing are being emphasized to the neglect of the higher and finer elements of personality. Our courses of study and syllabi should be instruments for the realization of this aim of education. I realize that this has been said many times, but I feel confident that it is not being put into practice extensively.

Which is more important—to teach pupils all the facts of the Revolutionary War without regard to the spirit that animated our forefathers, or to have them know less of the facts but to be enthused by the spirit of sacrifice, patriotism, and democracy which made possible the birth of a new nation on this continent? Which is more important—to have pupils know the names of the oceans—their location and size, or to appreciate their power and majesty and the many different ways in which they influence climate and commerce, and give to the earth food and rain, without which man could not live? There is only one answer to these questions, no matter how fully we realize the value of information, tests, and standards. I know that there are many ways of influencing the tastes and feelings of pupils and of developing moral conduct, but one important way is through the material which is included in the course of study.

Therefore, we hope to strike a ringing ethical note in our work, which will tell all teachers that, important as other phases of education are, the fundamental aim in education is the development of moral character.

REPORT OF THE COMMISSION ON THE CURRICULUM

EDWIN C. BROOME, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, PHILADELPHIA
PENNSYLVANIA

The definite, country-wide attack on the public school curriculum as a major project of the Department of Superintendence resulted from a resolution adopted at Cleveland in 1923, to the effect that a commission be created "for the purpose of bringing together the elements of a suitable curriculum for boys and girls of American schools."

The 1924 Yearbook was the result of the first year's work. This comprised a statement of general educational aims and objectives, a brief survey of current practices, and suggestions on methods of curriculum construction.

The 1925 Yearbook, *Research in Constructing the Elementary School Curriculum*, was prepared through the cooperation of seventy-five curriculum specialists. It comprised an analysis of important research studies in each of the elementary school subjects.

At our convention in Cincinnati a year ago we proposed for the succeeding year a nation-wide cooperative plan of curriculum revision. This plan was entered into cordially by school systems throughout the country. Over 300 cities have participated actively during the year in addition to several state and county school systems, and many educational institutions. (See pp. 23-26 of Yearbook.)

This year the subject committees have been headed by public school superintendents in each case; but on each committee there has been at least one curriculum specialist.

The twelve subject committees have comprised ninety-eight people; and there have also been engaged in the cooperative project which has produced this Yearbook, hundreds of superintendents, principals, supervisors, and teachers in the cities, towns, and institutions which have cooperated. We believe that this Yearbook is rightly named: *The Nation at Work on the Public School Curriculum*.

In presenting this Yearbook to you we hope we have accomplished five things:

1. Stimulated a nation-wide interest in curriculum revision.
2. Have impressed superintendents, principals, teachers and school boards with the importance and extensiveness of the problem of curriculum revision.
3. Have encouraged hundreds of teachers and principals to cooperate in the solution of a large professional problem.
5. Have given some direct help to those who are engaged in the task of curriculum revision.

Please do not be disturbed at the omission of reports on several subjects—notably reading, industrial arts, household arts, and art education. For unavoidable causes the reports in these subjects were not completed, but there is no intention of overlooking them. In fact, this Yearbook was not intended to be final.

We believe that curriculum revision is a continuing problem. The widespread cooperation of the past year indicates a great interest in this problem. Whether or not our work has been done well you must be the judges. We realize that the work is not completed and we believe that the commission should be continued. If this is your decision, it will be our plan to complete the reports on the elementary subjects that have not yet been covered, and to devote the major part of our time to the junior high school program.

Resolution—That the Commission on the Curriculum be continued and that the executive committee be authorized to make such changes in the personnel of the commission as it may deem wise.

REPORT OF NATIONAL COMMISSION ON ECONOMY AND EFFICIENCY OF THE BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION OF CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS

THOMAS E. FINEGAN, MEMBER OF COMMISSION
HARRISBURG, PENNSYLVANIA

At a meeting of the Executive Committee of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association held April 25, 1925, the following resolution was adopted:

Resolved that the Executive Committee favors the appointment of a committee on ways and means of securing an impartial investigation of the most effective method of articulating the educational and business departments of city school systems, and that an impartial organization be invited to finance and conduct the investigation to the end that the best interest of education and the community may be served.

Pursuant to such instruction and after consultation with many leading members of this organization from various parts of the country, President Ballou invited Hon. Hubert Work, Secretary of Interior, and Hon. Herbert Hoover, Secretary of Commerce, to join with him in the appointment of members of the proposed commission. The commission is constituted as follows: Dr. John J. Tigert, United States Commissioner of Education; Dr. Thomas E. Finegan, former superintendent of public instruction for Pennsylvania, appointed by Secretary Work; Mr. Ernest Greenwood, vice-president of the board of education, Washington, D. C.; Mr. Elliot Goodwin, resident vice-president at Washington of the United States Chamber of Commerce, appointed by Secretary Hoover; Dr. John H. Beveridge, superintendent of schools of Omaha, and Dr. George D. Strayer, Teachers College, Columbia University, appointed by President Ballou. The commission at its first meeting added Dr. Ballou to its membership and also elected him president of the commission.

In sharing responsibility in the organization of the commission with two members of the President's cabinet, President Ballou brought to the support of this enterprise the two departments of the federal government which

have official relation respectively to education and to business and commercial affairs. This gives a national prestige and significance to the inquiry which it otherwise would not possess.

The commission has decided that its membership shall not exceed nine and has authorized President Ballou to appoint one member who shall be representative of the views of business managers of city school systems, and one member who shall be representative of the views of organized labor. The multiplicity of duties involved in the arrangements for this meeting has prevented President Ballou from giving the careful consideration to these appointments which such action requires. An early announcement of such appointments will be made. It is regrettable that Dr. Strayer's engagements for the year are such as make it impossible for him to give the time to the inquiry which membership on the commission requires. He has therefore resigned from the commission. His resignation has been accepted with reluctance and regret. President Ballou has appointed to this vacancy Dr. Payson Smith, commissioner of education of Massachusetts.

Secretary Work has expressed keen interest in the work of the commission, has offered every cooperation which his department may render and has provided adequate quarters for the commission in the new building of the Interior Department.

Secretary Hoover's statement in consenting to participate in the organization of the commission is such that I quote from it these words,

Even with the expenditure by national, state and local governments of nearly \$2,000,000,000 annually for the current expenses of public, elementary, and secondary schools and approximately \$350,000,000 a year for new construction, we are far from the ideal of an educated electorate which is, and must be, the corner stone of a republic based on universal suffrage. We shall need even further extension of these expenditures if we meet this fundamental need. But if we are to meet this problem we must make sure that we get the most from our expenditure by the elimination of every waste so that the ever increasing burden shall not fall too heavily on the taxpayer.

The plan at the outset contemplated the study of the professional and business aspects of city school systems. Mr. Goodwin expressed the opinion that there was need of a study of the financial resources and educational facilities of rural school systems and of general aid and support to such systems by the several states and urged an inquiry into this subject also. The commission was of the opinion that the more pressing and immediate needs were in connection with city school systems and that prior consideration should be given to that field of inquiry.

It has been determined to designate the commission as, National Commission on Economy and Efficiency of Business Administration of School Systems. It is the opinion of the commission that this name is comprehensive and brings within the scope of inquiry all the essential factors and elements related to the aims and purposes of education and the best practices and procedure in Educational Administration.

The unprecedented demands upon the public school systems of the country during the past decade have thrust upon school executives and boards of

education, problems involving professional, financial, and administrative aspects which are of vital concern to the public interest. The efficiency of a school system—its real achievements in education—in other words, the returns or dividends on the funds invested in support of such system, is dependent upon a sound understanding and adjustment of these problems. The correct treatment of such problems involves a knowledge not only of the best professional procedure in educational practice, but also a clear conception of the application of sound business principles in such procedure.

Are these two interests—the professional procedure in education and the application of business principles—so coordinated in the administration of school systems that the best educational results, the largest returns or dividends, on the funds invested are produced? Are the organization and administration of all the interests of a school system coordinated so as to conserve funds, supplies, and human energy? Are unnecessary expenditures avoided? Is waste eliminated? Are economies practiced so that funds shall be available for essentials and for necessary growth and expansion in vital directions? Do the investors—the taxpayers and the rent payers—get value received for every dollar invested?

There are certain definite fundamental principles underlying the successful administration of a public school system which are as fixed and immutable as the economic and fundamental principles which govern and control cost sheets, price lists, and dividends in any great commercial or industrial enterprise. The failure to observe and strictly adhere to these principles in educational procedure and administration will be as disastrous to real achievements in education as the violation of sound economic and business principles will be to financial aspects and profits in affairs conducted for momentary rewards.

The commission will keep constantly in mind the great objectives of public education. It recognizes that the objectives for which public schools are maintained are essentially different than objectives for which industrial and commercial corporations are maintained. Results in education which are to bring profits to the entire community are the essential ends and not simply the amount of funds expended.

While costs and expenditures are vital factors to which school boards and superintendents are bound to give due consideration in the development of their programs such factors must not be made the central and controlling power in the final determination of such programs.

In other words, money, finances and business, while always given the consideration to which they are entitled, must not be the controlling power in the administration of public education. The purpose for which a school system is maintained, the great objectives in education, the educational needs of a community, the accomplishments of the schools, these are the factors and elements which should dominate in the final decisions pertaining to education. The emphasis should be placed upon *education* and its *professional* administration and not upon *financial* and *business* aspects of administration.

It would be just as reprehensible for the richest country in the world to debase the quality of instruction provided by the public schools for the training and discipline of boys and girls as it would be to adulterate its food products or to debase the standard value of its currency.

The tendency to strip educational executives of their rightful and essential prerogative of the administration of a school system is one of vital interest and concern to the entire country. No executive in education can accomplish successful results unless he is given freedom and initiative in the exercise of administration and executive powers and is permitted to discharge his obligations without fear or favor and always in the unshaken faith that any sound and righteous decision upon questions which he is called to determine from time to time will have the unqualified support of his official superiors, the board of education.

During the seventy-five years of the development of public school executives there have been many men who have achieved distinction through a rich contribution to the educational resources of the nation. The achievements of these men may not have been so spectacular, so visible, so easily measured as the achievements of some of the notable men in the fields of industry and commerce. It has been, however, an achievement bequeathed in perpetuity to the peace, progress, and prosperity of American life and institutions. Its influence will continue on and on and for many years will yield increased dividends in better American citizenship during the centuries that follow.

There have, of course, been failures among school executives. But there have been failures among business executives. We need only to read the weekly reports of *Dun* or *Bradstreet* to be impressed with the failures of business executives. No class of executives have a corner upon successful achievement. School executives may learn much from the ablest executives in business and commercial concerns. But industrial and commercial leaders and executives may profit greatly from the experiences of school executives in habits of economy, in patience, in finance, and in skill and leadership from many of the executives in education who are carrying large burdens vitally affecting the future of the nation.

School executives will welcome such aid as the skill, experiences and knowledge of the business executives will bring to the support of public educators.

The commission plans to devote not less than one year to the study of this problem under the direction of experts in educational administration and experts in business administration. The expense of the inquiry will be \$50,000. Several public-spirited citizens of means have been invited to make contributions toward meeting these expenses. The Department of Superintendence, the National Education Association, the United States Chamber of Commerce, the American Federation of Labor have been invited to make similar contributions.

The commission believes this inquiry of such outstanding national importance not only to the people of the entire country, but to the social, economic and commercial interests of the land and so fraught with possi-

bilities of a national service of vital significance that the project is one which individuals, organizations, and institutions engaged in the promotion of the welfare of the country may properly aid and support.

The commission has accordingly submitted a memorandum to the General Education Board, the Carnegie Foundation, and the Commonwealth Fund for consideration. The commission is of the opinion that the necessary funds will be provided and the inquiry inaugurated during the ensuing month. A report of the work of the commission will be made to this organization at its 1927 meeting.

THE EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

HERBERT S. WEET, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, ROCHESTER, N. Y.

There is under way in this country a movement for economy that should be welcomed by every thoughtful person who is sincerely interested in the country's welfare. While the problem of taxation is an important factor in this movement, it is by no means the only factor. That is to say, few would claim that the most important thing to be gained through this movement for economy is the reduction of taxes. There is here a prosperity that baffles the nations of the world to understand. But nations, like individuals, sometimes pay all too great a price for material prosperity. Money is cheaper than character and it is easier to build a fortune than a life. The great underlying purpose of those who are most earnestly and intelligently striving for economy, is to recognize that the elimination of waste and inefficiency from every type of service is essential to the moral health of our people.

It is safe to say that there is no phase of the country's business toward which this sane and wholesome principle of economy is more sympathetically applied than it is in the case of the public schools. The willingness of our people to spend money on education is equaled only by their hope and increasingly by their demand that it be expended wisely. To claim that waste and inefficiency are not found in public school systems as they are in industry and in commerce and in every other sphere of human activity, would be quite as unsound as to accept without reservation the doctrine that waste and inefficiency are part of the price that democracy must pay for its freedom and that consequently it matters little to what extent these manifest themselves. For our own part we make no such claim, nor do we accept any such doctrine. And the chief reason is that such an attitude of mind is in either case detrimental to the best interests of education itself. Thus to recognize waste and inefficiency in education and to work for its elimination primarily in the interest of education itself, should no more be regarded as an adverse criticism of school management than the corresponding process in industry is to be regarded as an attack upon the able leadership in business that is so generally found in all parts of the nation.

In the last analysis the primary cause of waste and inefficiency in public school systems is to be found in the fact that the demands made upon these schools during the past two decades have been far in excess of the provisions for effectively and economically meeting these demands. This principle applies equally well to the numbers served and to the educational processes required. The simplest demands to be met have been those for the adequate housing of numbers. Yet there is scarcely a city in the country that has been able to keep pace with this demand. If any person desires evidence of such waste and inefficiency, he need but look out upon the hundreds of thousands of children who are on part-time sessions, or housed in buildings that a modern factory would not tolerate; and upon the thousands of teachers that are working under conditions of congestion and sanitation that preclude the possibility of giving to every child that great educational opportunity of which we so frequently boast. The inevitable results are only too often poor work and repetition of grades, with all the added burden of expense that such repetition involves. The best thing that could happen to public education in this country would be to withhold for a decade further legislative demands in the way of compulsory education and expanded curriculums, and give to the schools time to replace the outworn machinery for their financial support and to enter into some of the refinements essential to soundest educational procedure.

One who reviews the field of elementary education must be impressed by two or three factors of progress that have been made in that field in recent years. Outstanding among these is the general agreement as to the four-fold task of the elementary school. These may be stated as follows:

To advance the child in his ability:

1. To read, write, and speak correctly the English language, and to know and use intelligently the elementary processes of arithmetic. By common consent these are the fundamentals without which neither the knowledge nor the training essential to the fullest enjoyment of life, to economic independence, and to satisfactory citizenship, can be secured.

2. To know and to observe the laws of physical health and well being, and to appreciate the meaning of life and nature.

3. To know and to appreciate the geography and the history of his own community, state, and nation, and to some extent of the world at large; to sense his share in the social, civic, and industrial order of such a democracy as ours, and to meet to the full the obligations which such knowledge and appreciation should engender, to the end that justice, sympathy, and loyalty may characterize his personal and community life.

4. To share intelligently and appreciatively in the fine and the useful arts through the pursuit of music, drawing, and literature; of manual training and the household arts as they are related to the three great universal needs of food, clothing and shelter.

No one, of course, will make the mistake of supposing that these four lines of work represent the sole ends or attainments of elementary education. Satisfactory progress in each of these is an essential accomplishment.

But these four lines also present the concrete tasks upon which we depend so largely for the development of right attitudes and sound character qualities. In the large it is in and through these four fields of work, and in and through the personality of the teacher which gives to them life and meaning, that we find the clear-cut, recognized, objectives of elementary education. A second step in the way of progress in elementary education, is the increasing conviction throughout the country that this common foundation can and should be laid during the first six years or grades of public school work. A third factor to be reckoned with is the incoming of the principle of the platoon type of school organization. It has been deliberately established and developed for the sole purpose of making the wisest expenditure of time, money, and energy in the education of the elementary school child. In short, these three factors of progress, when carefully studied, warrant the judgment that the public elementary schools of the country are passing safely and economically over this transition period from the time when the three R's largely constituted the work of the elementary school, to the present when these larger responsibilities have been placed upon it.

As we turn to the work of the six grades which lie beyond this elementary school period, we, unfortunately, cannot report corresponding progress. This should be neither surprising nor disappointing. It is the inevitable result of the unprecedented numbers of children that have literally swarmed into these upper grades in recent years. During the thirty-year period ending in 1920, the elementary and high schools of the country, combined, grew twice as rapidly as did the general population, and the colleges and universities, six and three-tenths times as rapidly. The high schools alone, however, grew fourteen and four-tenths times as rapidly as the general population during this thirty-year period. Neither the college above nor the elementary school below has known anything like the task that the secondary school has faced during the past quarter of a century, in attempting to make sanely and effectively the readjustments that it has been called upon to make. That waste and inefficiency have manifested themselves under these conditions is granted. The ever-present criticism that all too many pupils are attending our high schools, is increasing rather than diminishing. But no one has ever proposed, much less championed, a means of cutting down these numbers. No one has as yet seemed either able or willing to determine just what sons and daughters should go to high school and what ones should not. As school men we know that we must not expect a diminishing demand on the part of parents and on the part of life outside that boys and girls shall have a high school education. The important question is, rather, what kind of a high school education shall they have?

One high school principal declared recently that if he had his way every boy and girl would be given a chance at high school work, but unless that chance was used to the full that boy or girl would be obliged to leave school once and for all, so far as the public schools were con-

cerned. The rejoinder of a colleague here merits consideration. "I would accept that declaration," said he, "if only I could be sure that by a chance you mean that every boy and girl who is willing to work shall find in the high school a sound line of educational endeavor in which he can succeed, and shall be placed with teachers so gifted in firmness and understanding as to discover and develop whatever latent ability there may be in each and every one to whom such a chance might be extended." This rejoinder, it seems to me, points the way along which our thinking must be directed. We shall but deceive ourselves and all others concerned, if we expect in this country ever to go back to the time when the public high schools of America dealt with the selected few. In a very real sense the underlying purpose of the junior high school is to give just the opportunity suggested by this rejoinder. It is to give these diversified abilities a chance and thereby enable the school to demand from each according to his ability.

As we recall the six-year period of elementary education and the four lines of work accepted for this period, some important questions present themselves. The study of the English language will be continued by all as a matter of general education. At the beginning of the ninth grade, however, when some choice of a more or less permanent character as to course is required of each, this language group will be expanded to include the foreign languages and will constitute an essential part of a college preparatory course. The elementary mathematics and science of this elementary school course, likewise, expand into the more specialized fields of mathematics and science in the secondary school and hold a vitally important place, together with the foreign languages, for another group who will seek these college preparatory courses as soon as this common school course is completed. It is the plain duty of the school to do all within its power to see that this later choice as to course shall be made as intelligently as possible. That many now choose this four-year college preparatory course but fail to persist to the end and to find in this course educational returns commensurate with the time, money, and energy spent, is generally conceded. There is, today, in American education great waste to the community and great injustice to the individual which can be traced to the misdirected efforts of those who, without the special interests and abilities required, are crowding the high schools and the colleges, with a view to entering professional life. We all recognize this as a condition that needs correction, however much we may differ as to the best means of correcting it. Until it is corrected, we shall legitimately subject ourselves to the charge that all too many are being supported in high school at public expense. Again, until it is corrected, we shall continue to set before teachers in the high school the well-nigh impossible task of best developing the type of leadership that is possible with those who can, to the advantage of all concerned, profit by these college preparatory courses and ultimately enter the professional life of the community. And, finally, but by no means of least concern, until

this condition is corrected, we shall go on failing, through the public schools, to meet our full responsibility in developing leadership among vocations other than the professions. Nothing here should be interpreted as meaning that the road of the secondary school to the college and the technical school and to every other institution of higher learning, should not be kept wide open for every boy or girl who has the type of ability required and the willingness to apply himself or herself diligently to this end. In fact we might well take a lesson from the English system of educating for leadership along any and all lines, however humble and destitute the surroundings of the pupil may be, if only the potential power of leadership manifests itself.

Again, we recognize, today, that it is the work of the elementary school to advance each child in his ability to share intelligently and appreciatively in the fine and the useful arts, through the pursuit of music, drawing, and literature, of manual training and the household arts, as they are related to the three great universal needs of food, clothing, and shelter. These fine and practical arts of the elementary school are taught during this early school life of the child, with no primary reference to any bearing that they may have upon later life careers. They do gratify the universal desire for the use of the human hand and thereby serve as one very valuable medium for the expression of ideas and ideals; they enable the school to interpret great phases of our community life in a more vital way than would be possible without their aid; they present approaches to a wholesome use of the leisure hours that are increasingly filling human life; they provide for that systematic coordination of hand and mind which makes for the most favorable development of child life; and they do develop certain skills that may have a later bearing upon vocational careers. All these are primarily features of general education. But out of these groups of pupils who pursue these arts in the elementary school will come musicians and other artists; draftsmen and other artisans; as well as those who are to meet the business and professional demands of community life. Just what have we done in our public school systems during these seventh and eighth years, or grades, that lie between the elementary school, on the one hand, and the high school, on the other, to determine what the potential leadership is in each of these lines? We have given a little manual training in wood for boys, and a little corresponding work for girls. It was a first step and it has, doubtless served its purpose well. But it lacks the power to do the sort of thing that needs to be done with boys and girls at this stage of their development. Test it by its ability to supply real problems that command the best powers of head and hand, and by pretty common consent it fails. But provide the real shop where actual work in wood, and in metals, and with power, can supply real problems that challenge the interest and the attention of a growing boy and there is some hope of getting the kind of education for youngsters of this age, which hand work at its best is designed to give. The same principle applies in our work for girls.

The foregoing is but illustrative of the extent to which our public secondary schools have been increasingly called upon for these differentiated lines of service. There is no reason to suppose that this demand will not continue to increase as the years go on. There is bound to be a relation between the educational demands made upon the secondary school and the vocational changes and demands of the community. If, therefore, all this means anything, it means that just as we recognize a period during which we attempt to educate all in those things that must be the common possession of all; and a period during which we provide the differentiated lines of service for those to whom the vocational goal is remote, as well as for those to whom this goal lies near at hand; so we must recognize that between these two there is a period during which we must study and test, encourage and develop the special abilities and interests of every pupil, if the failures and the disappointments, and the consequent waste and inefficiency of the period of differentiated service is to be reduced. It is in recognition of this that the junior high or intermediate school has been established.

The junior high school, as we know it and understand it, sets out to make a relatively intensive study of the needs, capacities and interests of every pupil. The aspiration of parents and their ability to gratify educational desires for their sons and daughters, constitute one important factor in this study. It is neither wisdom nor economy to ignore it. The entire school record of the child, made possible through a permanent record card from the day he enters the elementary school until his appearance in the junior high school, constitutes another. The intelligence tests made possible through a well-organized child study department, are an indispensable third factor. The only thing worse than exaggerating the value of such tests is to ignore them in school procedure. Bodily health and social behavior, likewise, find their place in such a study. All these cost additional money. But it should mean more in the way of eliminating waste and inefficiency during the later secondary school period, than any other single step of which we know. No school man need offer an apology for any expenditure that may be required to make this study as intelligently as it can be made. One clear educational objective of the junior high school, therefore, is to know the child as well as it is possible to know him, for the sole purpose of guiding him intelligently along that line of educational endeavor that will contribute most to his personal happiness and to his usefulness in the community.

But however much a study of this kind may accomplish, it will avail but little except as there be within the school itself a range of educational activities adequate in scope and in character to the demands that are to be made upon it. These activities will be selected and organized primarily for the purpose of sounding out the interests and abilities of seventh and eighth grade boys and girls. They are primarily in the interest of general education and not in the interest of any particular trade or vocation. A second objective of the junior high school, then, is to supply

a range of educational facilities sufficient to represent the academic as well as the type elementary processes of vocational life in the community, on the one hand, and to meet the type interests and abilities found among pupils, on the other, all to the end that the present waste of the secondary school may be greatly reduced and true leadership in all phases of community life be better developed.

There is a third bit of distinctive work which the junior high school is attempting that is likewise designed to reduce the number of failures and misfits and thereby increase human happiness and raise the standards of civic life. It is that of taking the seventh grade, or twelve-year-old youngster and giving him at least two years of systematic training in the greatest of all arts, the art of intelligent self-application. The relatively shown progress made in this field of directed or supervised study, is equaled only by the difficulty and the importance of the task. Any broad gauge view of the matter, however, should convince us that we shall not in a day, or a year, or a decade even, approximate our goal in this regard. The magnitude of the problem is so great and the established habits of school life so secure as sometimes to make us wonder whether we can go far even in a partial solution of this problem. In the junior high school we have accepted this as one of our obligations and we are making progress. With all the history behind us of hearing recitations, we shall be patient during these transition years in our attempt to find the way to a better course and to a course made necessary by the radically changed conditions of modern life as compared with the life of a few generations ago. Somewhere between the extreme of allowing a willing worker to flounder in disappointment and despair, with all the waste and inefficiency that result, and that other even more dangerous and debilitating extreme of encouraging mental and moral flabbiness by doing his work for him, we are attempting in the interest of good education and of economy to find the golden mean of intelligent self-application. In proportion as we succeed we shall come to a clearer understanding of the limitations and capacities of each pupil and thereby supplement effectively the fundamental purpose and the controlling motive of the junior high school, to give to each according to his needs and to exact from each according to his ability.

It must be apparent that to provide this larger, more intensive and more diversified school adds substantially to the cost of the educational program for these seventh and eighth grades. No experienced person in junior high school work will attempt to justify this school on the ground of immediate financial savings. It is an organization that brings the per capita cost during these grades from the level of the elementary school to that of the high school. The important question, however, is whether we can today protect the investments that we have made in the education of the child, in carrying him through the kindergarten and the six grades of the elementary school, and the investments that we are increasingly making in the high school, as required by compulsory education laws, the desires of parents, and the demands of society at large,

without the vitalizing facilities for doing the relatively intensive work that the junior high school at its best is designed to do.

If such facilities are to be provided there is no way consistent with economy by which they can be secured except through some such organization as the central junior high or intermediate school. The well-equipped library here becomes an important laboratory for the work in English, social studies, and for reference in general. There are also required health education facilities that command the respect of boys and girls during these adolescent years when the outlet for physical enthusiasm is so demanded and when the soundest kind of health education available is so important. For the range of shop work for boys, that deals with problems quite as real as those found in life outside, there are corresponding requirements for the girls of the school. The cost of providing all these in connection with each grammar school would obviously be prohibitive.

To summarize, the chief field of waste and unsatisfactory service in the public school systems of the country is to be found in the grades that lie beyond the six years of the elementary school. The fundamental cause of this has been the unparalleled growth in numbers to be served in these upper grades. This enormous increase in these grades has thrown upon them a range of diversified abilities and interests with which the school has been unable to cope because of its inability to study the capacities and limitations of each pupil and to provide a range of educational facilities designed to meet the type needs which such a study reveals. The junior high school seeks to remedy this condition. It sets as its first objective as intensive a knowledge of the ability of each child as it is possible to obtain; as its second, the development of each child according to the ability which he may possess, on the ground that this is the right of the child and the plain duty of the school to the community; and as its third, the cultivation of habits of intelligent self-application without which those character qualities essential to the best American citizenship cannot be secured.

It is related that some thirty years ago the first steam turbine engine in the United States, was brought here from Europe. A boy of apparently little promise and of about the least value among those employed, was set to watch that steam turbine in order that he might shut off the steam or give the alarm in case anything went wrong. That proved to be for that boy the contact from which came an incentive, the value of which no man can measure. There was aroused a deep and abiding interest from which came the hard work that resulted in an informed, trained, and disciplined mind and character. This, in the last analysis, is the one big thing which we all desire first in the education of our own children. The driving power or incentive which necessity itself provided in the early history of this country, is a thing of the past. If there is a substitute for it, it must be found in the kind of awakened and intelligently directed interest that came to this lad through his contact with that steam turbine. We cannot vouch for the story, but it is illustrative

of a vital principle in education. Such a contact may come through the shop, or the laboratory, or the studio, or the personality of the teacher. The incentive which it arouses may, through the years that follow, lead to a vocation not even remotely connected with the contact from which it sprang. If there were time some interesting facts could be given to show that even during the brief experience of the junior high school these contacts have led to intelligently selected vocational courses that have been followed in later life to the apparent advantage of all concerned. But any attempt to measure the value of the junior high school, solely or largely, by the number of those who because of work in a given shop or laboratory later follow the vocation with which that shop or laboratory is linked, is to miss the great underlying purpose of the school. That purpose is to find to the limit of our ability a driving power toward better things for every normal boy and girl within our public schools. Nothing short of such an effort is worthy of America with all its wealth and with all its ideals.

SUPERVISION OF CLASSROOM TEACHING IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

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In discussing the supervision of classroom teaching in the junior high school, it is necessary, first, to analyze the duties of a junior high school principal. The relation of other duties will determine in a large measure the success of classroom supervision, which I believe to be the most important duty of the principal in any school, whether it be junior high, senior high or elementary.

When the junior high school principal takes up his duties, the first thing with which he is concerned is the organization of his school. This has to do with the number of pupils which are assigned to his care, their classification into groups according to subjects to be studied and their advancement, and, in some of our junior high schools, also according to intelligence tests or achievement tests. The plan followed rather successfully in several schools is to give the intelligence or achievement test to pupils in the sixth grade of the elementary schools, before their entrance into the junior high. This plan has several advantages, not the least of which is the opportunity to establish a very friendly relationship between the junior high and the elementary schools, through close personal contact between the principal and the elementary teachers at the time the test is given. Let me say here that the establishment of a cordial working arrangement with the elementary school is a very important part of junior high school management and the principal makes a serious mistake when he neglects this opportunity.

After the classification of pupils has been completed and the schedule

of classes blocked out, there comes the adaptation of the schedule to the building. The number of rooms, their location, seating capacity and equipment, all must be carefully studied before a program can be completed.

In the assignment of classes to teachers a problem arises, particularly when new teachers are being received into the faculty. Checking the delivery of supplies and textbooks also must be done at this time, while the organization of a school is under way.

With the organization plans prepared, the next important duty is directing the operation of the school. There must be a smooth operation of the schedule, with classes reporting on time to the proper places with as little delay as possible. The ability to think through the schedule plan so as to anticipate all conflicts and difficulties is no mean task and the principal feels a certain glow of satisfaction at the end of the first week of school when he finds that there has been no serious conflict or interruption in the class program which he has prepared.

Smooth operation of the school calls for the proper assignment of irregular pupils, so that classes are not overcrowded and the irregular pupil does not suffer in his advancement. During the first month of the new semester, there is a constant influx of new pupils who have moved into the district or who have been unable to attend at the time promotion was made. Their admission and proper assignment must be given immediate attention.

There are few large city school systems where supplies are always delivered promptly at the beginning of the new semester. The principal must be alert in expediting the delivery of delayed materials, otherwise an enthusiastic teacher and class may have no opportunity to begin their work until some time after the term is opened, causing serious disappointment to the teacher and loss of time and effort on the part of the class.

In most of our large junior high schools a lunchroom with a cafeteria is provided to care for the pupils of the school at lunch time. Where a continuous school day is followed; that is, from eight forty-five to three forty-five, with thirty minutes for lunch, the school being divided into three or four platoons, part of the school lunching while the remainder of the school is at work, the organization and direction of the lunchroom presents an ever present problem, which calls for careful organization and management.

As the second duty of the junior high school principal, we find the direction and operation of the school occupying an important place, involving smooth operation of the schedule, assignment of irregular pupils, assignment of new pupils, expediting the delivery of supplies, and management of the lunchroom.

The third duty of the principal is found in general supervision of the school. The general supervision involves, at the start of the term, the initiating of the beginning teacher into her new duties. First, we have those without experience, who call for careful consideration from the

principal. They must be directed in regard to their management of pupils, always an important problem with the beginner and particularly so in the junior high. If the beginner can manage a class successfully, methods of instruction can be given attention later, but if class management is wanting, the principal may have a critical case on his hands at the very start of the term.

Then, there are teachers entering the school, perhaps for the first time, who have had experience in elementary schools, who are capable of managing the class, but who need instruction concerning the course of study and methods which apply to the junior high school. Occasionally we have as beginning teachers those who have had experience in the traditional high school, and usually they present to the principal a real problem in teacher management. Their sympathy is sometimes not with the junior high group and they look upon their new position as anything but a promotion, sometimes resenting their placement in the junior school. If, fortunately, they have the right attitude of mind, they sometimes are seriously wanting in knowledge of the proper methods of teaching for pupils of the seventh, eighth, and ninth years and are inclined to teach the subject rather than boys and girls. Part of the principal's general supervision is concerned with instructing new teachers in the course of study, which can be continued over a considerable part of the term.

A high school faculty meeting can be made interesting or can be extremely dull and wearisome to the teacher. The junior high school principal needs time for carefully planning faculty meetings, so that they may be a source of inspiration to his teachers and a means of professional growth. In order to build morale in the faculty, social meetings are also necessary and perhaps play as important a part as the carefully planned professional meetings.

One of the outstanding developments of the junior high school's function is in the organization and growth of extra-curricular activities. The principal in his general supervision must decide the number and type of extra curricular activities to be adopted by his school and must make careful selection of the teachers whose leadership will determine their success.

In order that his school may meet the demands of the hour there must be constant attention given to curricular study, and one of the important problems of the principal is the selection of teachers from the faculty to serve as members of committees which are studying the curriculum and discovering methods of improvement.

In order to test the success of classroom instruction, measurement tests must be selected or devised and a time scheduled for their use. After the tests have been given, careful study of results must follow and diagnoses of difficulties be made. These results must be placed before the faculty and remedial measures discussed.

The above is closely related to teachers' ratings of pupils, which call for careful checking on the part of the school head.

As the end of the semester draws near, the problem of promotions looms

before the principal. This also bears a close relation to the results of measurement tests and to teachers' ratings of pupils.

Under the general supervision of the high school principal, we find the problem of initiating new members of the faculty, instructing them in the course of study, planning faculty meetings, organizing extra-curricular activities, selecting groups of teachers for studying the curriculum, selecting or devising measurement tests and teachers' ratings of pupils.

But the fourth and most important duty of the high school principal is found in the actual classroom supervision, and, in my opinion, less time is spent upon this last and most important duty than upon those which precede. The reasons for this are found in the rapid growth of our high schools in enrolment, with the attendant problems in organization and direction, which have increased rapidly with the increase in number of pupils under the management of one principal. In the small high schools of three hundred fifty to five hundred pupil enrolment, it is easily possible to keep in close touch with the work of every teacher, but, as the school grows in size, the time demanded for general management of the school increases and we find the principal devoting more and more time to the direction and operation of the school and less to the classroom. Indeed, we have come to judge the success of the high school principal more upon his ability as a general manager than upon his power to direct instruction and we have permitted the preparation of a program, the placing of it in operation and the supervision of its operation to consume so large a measure of the principal's attention and such a large share of his energy that little time is left for classroom problems.

In examining a busy junior high school principal's day not long ago, I found that from the time he arrived in the building at eight o'clock until he left the building at five in the afternoon, his whole day was occupied with problems of general management, including, before time for the first class, discussions with teachers concerning problems of discipline and discussions with the janitor in regard to the operation of the heating plant, and, after the beginning of the day, including conferences with parents concerning non-promotion of pupils, a call from the representative of a school book publishing company, three serious cases of discipline, the reception of a committee of the Y. M. C. A. concerning the Hi-Y Club, a conference with the truant officer, another with the vocational advisor, the approval of a series of requisitions, a conference with the manager of the athletic teams and a number of minor interviews difficult to classify under any head. In fact the whole day was consumed with problems arising from the general management of the school, and the principal told me that the day was fairly typical of his experience.

But, important as is the organization and direction of a high school, there is a far greater duty of the principal in classroom supervision, because it is here that the principal actually comes in touch with the real work of his school and, unless time can be found for this most important duty, high schools will be well organized and directed in their operation, but will be exceedingly weak in the quality of classroom instruction. Classroom

supervision calls for the very best ability the high school principal can put forth. He must have a personality which makes it possible to enter a classroom and give the teacher immediately the impression that her best professional friend has arrived for the purpose of giving her aid and assistance in meeting the most serious problems in teaching. His personality and power must inspire confidence in his professional zeal and ability. He must be able to submerge his personality so as to become a member of the class, in order that the teacher can present a sample of teaching equal to that which would be produced if the principal were not present. Some principals of very strong personality lack this power and dominate the whole situation, making it impossible for the teacher to instruct under normal conditions. The principal must have a thorough knowledge of the art of teaching, so that he can make a quick analysis of the assignment and the recitation, as to its type and its application to the pupil and to the subject studied. The methods and devices employed must be evaluated together with methods of questioning, the response of pupils, and, particularly, the efficiency with which the lesson is taught and the success of the results gained. This cannot be done in a five-minute visit to a classroom but takes a carefully detailed study of a recitation and, sometimes, of a series, before a beneficial and fair criticism of a teacher's work can be made.

Then, after a careful study of a recitation has been made by the principal, there comes the conference with the teacher in which the principal's power to instruct, inspire and lead is put to a real test. Many principals may learn to successfully study the work of a teacher in a classroom, but when it comes to a conference with the teacher on the results of the recitation mistakes are easily made because the personal element must of necessity enter into the consideration of the case.

After the conference, there comes the checking of results of his or her instruction to determine whether the improvements suggested in the conference have produced gain. This may call for a demonstration lesson on the part of the principal or the sending of the teacher to visit another who can produce the results which are desired.

What we are trying to point out in the fourth place, therefore, is that the most important duty of the principal is the supervision of the classroom teacher and that it is, perhaps, the least emphasized of all his varied duties.

The question arises as to how much time should be spent by the high school principal in the classroom. Taking a sixty teacher faculty as an example, how many periods could the principal spend in supervising each teacher's work? The principal's time, the first month of the term, is largely occupied in directing the general operation of the school, with problems of general supervision and with teachers who are new to the faculty, so that little time is left for classroom supervision. From the beginning of the second month until the first of January, time can be found for classroom supervision. By January first the duties of organization for the second semester become pressing and it is the middle of February before

the school is operating smoothly upon the second semester's work. By the middle of May the principal becomes deeply immersed again in problems of promotion and those attendant on the close of the term. Consequently, problems of the classroom must be given most attention during the second, third, and fourth months and during the sixth, seventh, and eighth months of the term.

With a sixty teacher faculty, allowing three periods per day for classroom supervision, it would be possible to visit each teacher for a period once during the school month, allowing six months of the school term for classroom supervision. The school principal, by budgeting his time, will be able to visit each teacher of the faculty six recitation periods during the course of the entire term. This seems to me to be the minimum time a secondary school principal should expect to spend in the classroom and would call for fifty percent of his school time during six months of the term. It is my opinion that few high school principals are spending so large an amount of time in classroom supervision, but I believe it is possible, if their time is properly budgeted.

In order to do so it is necessary, first of all, to delegate many of the duties which are now considered the high school principal's special field. It will be necessary to place upon the vice-principal's shoulders many of the responsibilities for general control and operation of the school, which now the principal undertakes, and it will also be necessary to delegate to certain capable members of the faculty many of the details of school management; but classroom supervision cannot be successfully delegated, because it is in such supervision that the principal gains and maintains the contact which is necessary to gain the best results in teaching.

In city school systems, supervisors of special subjects take much of the responsibility for the instruction of special teachers in secondary schools. The head of the junior high may leave all supervision of the special teachers to the special supervisors, thus gaining time for visits to the regular classrooms. Such plan is a mistake, for the special supervisor's skill is confined usually to furthering the development of the specialty with little knowledge of or sympathy with other departments of the school.

Some of the most difficult cases for the principal in classroom supervision are found with shop teachers, domestic science, art, and physical training. As an example, the training of a teacher who has been taken from a trade and placed in a junior high shop may require daily assistance from the principal for months before he is able to manage a class successfully or impart instruction. It is necessary for the principal to supplement the visit of the specialist with a broader type of criticism, enriched by a knowledge of the whole school and its objectives.

In conclusion, the most important work of the junior high principal is supervision of classroom teaching. No other duties should be permitted to interfere with it. Means should be found to delegate the general direction of the school to others in order that time be given to the principal to make full use of his greatest opportunity as head of a junior high school, the supervision of classroom teaching.

PROVISION FOR INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES AMONG PUPILS IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

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Providing for individual differences among pupils—and providing amply for these differences—is the *sine qua non* of the whole junior high school movement. Without such provisions—numerous, varied, and real—there is no true junior high school, however boastful an institution may claim the title. The whole modern notion of reform and reorganization in the training of adolescent youths was conceived under the influence of this thought and born under the ministrations of this ideal. Moreover modern physiology, modern psychology, and modern sociology have all been lending their cumulative support to the cause. Indeed, the scientific study of education, in all its sweep, has not contributed a truth more certain and more vital than the facts of individual differences among pupils, nor has any prominent contemporary educator—and surely no prominent advocate of the junior high school failed to list the topic among the supporting arguments for radical school reforms—Briggs, Koos, Judd, Glass, Gosling, Johnston, Inglis, Van Denberg, Hines, Douglas, and scores of others. Likewise, no progressive school administrator has neglected to take steps of some kind to relate these facts to school policies. Individual differences among human beings are real and positive; provisions for taking these differences into account are necessary and desirable.

But individual differences have, at the same time, counterbalances in the forms of numerous individual likenesses. Human beings, despite their many points of dissimilarity, must work together, play together, live together. Consequently individual training must be articulated with group training; differentiating education must combine with integrating education. Even though it be granted that personality is the most sacred possession of the race and that freedom for its development is the most cherished right demanded in the universe, nevertheless the very soul of civilization requires that this liberty shall not be exercised except under the operation of just and wholesome regulations. For law, says Montesquieu, represents merely the surrender by individuals of a part of their rights in order that they may be more secure in the portions which are retained. Indeed, this principle of balance is the very spirit of democracy, for “The purpose of democracy,” say the authors of *Cardinal Principles*, “is so to organize society that each member may develop his personality through activities designed for the well-being of his fellow members and of society as a whole.”

Thus, any provision for meeting individual differences of pupils, either in the junior high school or elsewhere, must be made to harmonize with the equally important provisions for meeting the needs of organized society conceived as a unit. That is, special procedures must supplement, not wholly supplant, general processes. First of all, therefore, a junior high school must provide a body of common knowledge and common experience.

It must seek to develop sets of like ideals, like interests, like aspirations, like usages. Otherwise individuals will be strangers to each other in a common country. Thus, a common linguistic training, a common body of signs and symbols usable for carrying on the affairs of practical life, common sets of laws and regulations, common moral ideals, common social standards must, at least in their larger aspects, be the possessions of all individuals. Just where the limits of this type of education shall be for any given pupil it is difficult to say. Possibly Briggs' line of demarkation is the safest, namely, the limit of the holding power of the uniform processes. When common procedures fail to attract, retain, and benefit pupils in school, then the uncommon or particularized procedures must take their place. Now individuals differ in respect to many facts—age, sex, nationality, bodily development, health, native intelligence, tastes, interests, ambitions, family traditions, life experiences, mental and practical attainments, economic resources, habits of procedure and probably in scores of other ways. Obviously the possible number of combinations and permutations of differences to be found in a single individual would be nearly infinite. Consequently no school could hope to meet the particular needs of each particular pupil in all respects and in all ways. The best that could be expected would be to approximate the perfect goal.

But theorizing on the desirability of making provision for individual differences and actually making such provisions in the schools are two entirely separate matters. The former is easy, the latter is exceedingly difficult. Nevertheless it is the latter question alone that concerns us greatly here today.

Let it therefore be assumed that schoolmen generally accept the doctrine that youths are notably unlike in their capacities, experiences, interests and needs; that it is an important function of the schools (and particularly of the junior high schools) to discover these differences, and to analyze and direct them; and that one way to learn how best to provide for these differences in a given locality is to familiarize one's self with the procedures, successes, and failures of other school officials who have been patiently and carefully experimenting with various types of agencies in their several school systems.

In casting about for materials to be used in this address today the writer communicated with forty of the best known junior high schools in the central west and asked specifically what provisions they are making for meeting individual differences among pupils. Replies were received from thirty-one of these schools. The discussion which follows has been largely formulated from these letters.

Provision for meeting individual differences can perhaps be classified under three main headings. These are: intellectual, social, and physical. Clearly these three categories are not completely separate and distinct, nor do they perchance include all types of provisions that are being made for realizing the ends sought. Nevertheless they will serve as convenient divisions for this discussion.

First, provisions for meeting intellectual differences among pupils.

One outstanding aim or objective which theorists have set for the junior high school is an enrichment of the intellectual and emotional life of pupils by means of bringing them into more or less intimate contact with a great variety of new types of subjects of study in grades seven, eight, and nine. Evidence is strong that this enrichment is going on apace. Many schools provide a wide range of studies for each grade, permitting pupils to elect freely at least a portion of their work each year. As a rule, however, the greater portion of the work in the seventh grade is uniform for all; in the eighth grade the door to the elective subjects is opened somewhat further; and in the ninth grade it is swung ajar fully two thirds or three fourths of the space. The fields from which choices of studies are made range from a list of three, four, or five subjects in the seventh grade to a list of fifteen, twenty, twenty-five or more branches in the ninth grade. Further, in large numbers of schools today a pupil's full weekly schedule calls regularly for thirty class periods, but individual differences are taken into account by permitting the most capable youths to carry thirty-five or more units of work weekly and by requiring the less capable ones to reduce their total elections to twenty-five periods, twenty periods, or, in extreme cases, fifteen periods weekly.

On the other hand, many schools deem it wiser to confine pupil elections to fixed curricula rather than to lists of specified term courses. Thus, the more capable pupils are steered into the so-called academic curriculum and the less capable ones into other types of curricula. Experimentation alone, apparently, can reveal which of these two schemes is the better one.

It is, however, in the more detailed organization and administration of the program of studies and curricula that the most complete opportunity for providing for individual differences of pupils is made. Almost universally now pupils entering the stronger junior high schools are classified on a basis of their abilities and achievements, and the various courses of study and curricula are worked out and adapted to the peculiar and special needs of these groups. In making these classifications various schemes are employed. In some schools, intelligence tests alone serve as the guide; in other schools, these tests are supplemented by standard achievement tests; in still other schools both of these agencies are checked against the school records of the pupils in the six elementary grades, against data gathered by the junior high school teachers in personal conferences with the entering pupils, against impressions gained by visits to the homes of the pupils, and against cumulative data secured from the school physician, school nurse, and school dentist.

The number of homogeneous sections in which a school classifies its pupils varies notably. It is perhaps the more common practice to have but three distinguishing groups in each grade, the X, Y, Z groups, or the A, B, C groups. Under this arrangement there will be but few sections designed solely for the upper and lower groups, but a considerable number organized to care for the so-called normal pupils. In some schools, however, an effort is made to place every pupil in the school in a section corresponding closely to his individual ranking. Thus, at Okmulgee, Oklahoma, under Mr. Bruner

in 1923-1924, each member of the school was given what was thought to be an appropriate rating by means of tests, interviews and records, and then, from this complete list of pupils, sections of approximately 30 pupils each were taken off in serial order. In this manner fourteen sections of serially classified pupils were formed in the seventh grade and ten sections likewise serially classified were formed in the eighth grade. These sections were styled respectively 7-1, 8-1, 7-2, 8-2 and so on through the list, the section of lowest ability in the seventh grade being known as 7-29 and the one of lowest ability in the eighth grade being styled 8-20.

Describing the work of these various sections Mr. Bruner says:¹

The top sections are called enrichment classes and a much broader and varied amount of work is given them. In the lower sections work is assigned according to the ability of the class—In many cases pupils in the enrichment classes are allowed either to take an extra subject or to complete three semesters' work a year.—The children in the enrichment classes (thus) secure the benefit of a much broadened curriculum and also some acceleration, usually the six years (of secondary education) being covered in five.

Of course the methods of instruction used in homogeneous grouping varies both with respect to the subject matter, the size of class, and the extent of individual differences. In the less capable sections not only in Okmulgee, but elsewhere instruction is essentially wholly individualistic, or at least given to sub-groups of two, three, or four pupils. Universally, however, reclassification of pupils according to their attainments is provided in all sections and takes place irregularly as merit suggests the need.

Perhaps no better way of revealing current practices in adapting subject-matter to individual differences can be found than by quoting excerpts from certain letters that were received. Here are a few excerpts:

Fond du Lac, Wisconsin, Roosevelt Junior High School—"Pupils entering grade 9B from rural or parochial schools are segregated in mathematics, English, and citizenship classes."

Saginaw, Michigan, Central Junior High School—"Students are classified by tests and by grade-school ratings and placed in either the academic, vocational, or commercial curriculum. Boys and girls are segregated in most subjects. Not only the subjects but the nature of the content of the subjects is made suitable for either sex, grade, and curriculum group."

Menominee, Michigan, Junior High School—"We classify all pupils according to mental ability based on teachers' judgments and marks. We also segregate boys and girls entirely."

It is perhaps pertinent to remark here that Saginaw and Menominee are two of the very few schools in which, so far as the present writer's knowledge goes, sex segregation is generally adopted in the junior high school. It will be worth while to watch the experiments thus being carried forward.

Lincoln, Nebraska, Whittier Junior High School—"We have three groups, A, B, and C. In the C group the teacher does not try to cover so much work as in the other groups and the work is much simpler. The B

¹ Bruner, Herbert Bascom, *The Junior High School at Work*, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1925.

group covers the work of the average pupil, while the A group takes more advanced work and does much outside reading, especially in social science. In A groups we do not intend to give more of the same kind of work, but to give a different kind of work."

Little Rock, Arkansas, West Side Junior High School—"The provisions for differences in courses of study are not definite nor the same for any two classes. While we do have a so-called 'minimum essentials' list, we do not overemphasize minimum essentials for the reason that some teachers drill on these rather than teach boys and girls. However, it is expected that certain essentials will be covered by any and all classes and that additional work will be done by those who can."

Youngstown, Ohio, Central Junior High School—"Our elective system allows more hand work for the slow and language for the bright."

Jackson, Michigan, West Intermediate School—"The amount of work required of the normal pupil is twenty-five points a semester. He may, however, with the permission of his (session-room) teacher elect as many as thirty points; and in cases where pupils prove their inability to carry twenty-five points per semester the number is reduced as low as twenty points or even, in extreme cases, lower than that."

South Bend, Indiana, Junior High School—"We find by proper vocational and educational guidance our failures in language and mathematics have been reduced to a negligible quantity. We do not permit a pupil to take algebra or a language unless his I. Q. justifies it."

Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, Capitol Hill School—"We have a special teacher for children who have failed or are behind their group or who may, for some reason, be misfits. Under this special teacher they are given tutoring in their academic subjects for one-half time each day. The other half day the vocational or manual work is carried on at the junior high school."

Lansing, Michigan, West Junior High School—"Under definite supervision credit is allowed for work done outside of school in music and Bible study, and occasionally, by special arrangement, in other subjects."

Des Moines, Iowa, West Junior High School—"In connection with each junior high school we have a small sub-junior department to which we transfer from the neighboring elementary schools those over-age and under-grade students who have been behind because of a lack of ability, ill-health, or other unfortunate circumstances. These departments are taught by special teachers, and by handling these pupils in the junior high school buildings we are able to get them a better program of physical education, industrial work, etc., which will increase their interest in staying in school and do better for them while they do stay."

Decatur, Illinois, Roosevelt Junior High School—"It seems to me after several years of careful observation that the best provision for individual differences is securing the best teacher available. Teach her how to make assignments, motivate work, and supervise study and the thing is done."

Who is there in the audience that does not feel like saying "Amen" to that thought?

Minneapolis, Minnesota, Jordan Junior High School—"The individual differences of pupils can best be looked after by all teachers looking upon the child as an individual and not as one of a large group. In fact—the junior high school is more of a mental attitude than it is an organization. Where you find teachers with a junior high school mental attitude you find teachers who are looking after individual pupils and caring for individual differences. Of course, the organization must be so flexible that adjustments can be made at any hour of the day. This securing of flexibility is the big work of the principal."

Denver, Colorado, Byers Junior High School—"The school is organized on the basis of close classification. We have something like eight groups to each grade. In departmental meetings the teachers arrange their courses to fit these types of groups. No particular change in method is involved, the difference being in the simplicity of the matter presented; and the emphasis—we do not grant A's and B's (to pupils) in the poor sections, feeling that in the long run it does more harm to the individual and to the group than it could possibly do good. We believe that there will be less waste of effort and less disappointment if these children realize that their work is not up to standard and that they must choose the lines that they can follow best."

Richmond, Indiana, Julia E. Test Junior High School—"Our first step in providing for individual differences is a building which we call our annex especially equipped to do work with subnormal children. Within the subnormal groups are smaller groups again made on the basis of ability. With normal pupils we divide, according to ability, in from three to four sections in each class. Our curriculum provides for individual differences by election of courses. Pupils of the higher sections are expected to do more extensive and intensive work. Supervised study with fifty-five minute periods prevail. No rigid standard of promotion is set; we promote by subject, keeping in mind the needs of the individual. In promoting from junior high school to senior high school a pupil is not held to a rigid standard. A pupil may have failed in 9A mathematics and yet be permitted to go to the senior high school. The two principals confer and the pupil's case is disposed of in the manner which seems to be to his best advantage."

Kansas City, Missouri, Westport Junior High School—"Upon entrance to the school, pupils are thrown into groups on the basis of intelligence rating and scholastic attainment. A wide range of electives is provided and the scope of subject-matter is adjusted by the teacher to the individual group she has. Thus we have a rapidly moving Latin group and a slower moving group. Classes in mathematics are provided for in the same manner. In addition to this, separate groups are arranged for pupils who cannot make a normal rate of progress, and these groups contain those pupils who are largely individual in their tendencies. Thus a freshman English class composed of twenty pupils may have several pupils who will make only thirty weeks' work during the forty weeks, while other pupils can make up work and thus return to normal classes. The instruc-

tion here is individual. Again we have classes in what we call extra English. The teacher has arranged her own course using a card system. On these cards are assignments and exercises. The children take up these cards in order and as rapidly as they are able. The requirement for a new card is that the exercise be perfect in spelling, grammar, and penmanship. It has been found that this plan allows the child to proceed at his own normal rate, to receive individual correction on his own weaknesses and satisfaction at his successes."

From these excerpts it is clear that the most outstanding common plan for meeting individual differences is by segregated pupils in homogeneous groups. However, two of the thirty-one schools considered here, are emphatically opposed to classification of this sort. These schools are Lansing, Michigan, West Junior High School; and Atchison, Kansas, Ingalls Junior High School. Their criticisms are as follows:

Lansing—"We do not use homogeneous grouping. We feel that it is an unnatural, unfair, uninspirational, undemocratic, and generally undesirable procedure, not well suited to school life or life after school. In other words, we feel that the evils of homogeneous grouping in general far outweigh the advantages."

Atchison—"The Atchison high school has tried homogeneous grouping for more than five years. The last two years we have encouraged frank expression of opinion from our teachers concerning the wisdom of ability grouping, and a large majority opposes the grouping largely for sociological reasons—casual grouping is unquestionably more natural, more democratic, more open to modern methods of socialized classroom control. Nothing is more disheartening to students and teachers alike than subnormal groups. Students who are in superior groups unquestionably develop superiority complexes."

In addition to these more particularized ways of meeting individual differences a few other general customs may be cited. Thus, virtually every school administrator claims that his teachers seek to adapt subject-matter and methods to individual needs, whether homogeneous classification is practiced or not. Again, promotion by subject is today a fully established procedure everywhere, such promotions taking place irregularly as occasion warrants. Likewise, over-age pupils are commonly transferred from the elementary schools to the junior high schools whether such pupils have satisfactorily completed the sixth grade or not. Not infrequently, of course, these pupils are placed in segregated opportunity rooms and a program of work is made up for each one separately.

Further, more and more, the practice is increasing that promotion within these opportunity classes shall rest solely upon the efforts put forth by the pupils. Indeed there is much to be said for the general acceptance of the pedagogical slogan: "Every pupil who does his best passes," for surely, as Dr. Bruner says, "A child with an I. Q. of eighty who works up to seventy-eight of that eighty is just as worthy of promotion as one who works up to only 115 of the 120 I. Q. with which he is blessed."

On the other hand, hopelessly deficient individuals when discovered through the opportunity class in the junior high school or otherwise are commonly being transferred directly to a vocational or prevocational school and trade instruction suited to their abilities is made the sum total of their work. Contrarywise, however, mature individuals who solely because of social handicaps have been unable to take their places in school with pupils of their own age are, when abilities are revealed, given double or triple promotion and placed in classes which really challenge their efforts.

Vocational guidance bureaus and courses dealing specifically with vocational information and occupations are commanding recognition in some schools, though not in all. However, personal counseling by the principal, physical director, dean of girls or other official is a very common practice in all schools. The sixty minute class period with considerable attention to supervised study is likewise achieving much for individual pupils in some schools. Here, again, all depends on the teacher and her ability to assert neither too much nor too little but both wisely and well. Here and there some attempt to put in operation a modified Winnetka or modified Dalton plan is making its appearance, but little definite headway seems as yet to have eventuated from these experiments.

Finally one other mode of providing for individual differences in a curricular way is worthy of more extended mention. This is the use of try-out courses by which to discover taste and aptitudes and to guide pupils toward desirable goals of occupation. Courses of the sort mentioned go under various names—exploratory courses, broadening and finding courses, shop-round courses, overview courses, or merely try-out courses. The older manner of providing for this type of work was to allow perchance one hour per week to a given subject for one semester, one year, or longer. Such time allotments were, however, objectionable both from an educational and from an administrative standpoint. Schedules were difficult to make and carry out, and the continuity of learning and of interest in it was defective. A much more acceptable scheme of conducting this kind of work is therefore being adopted. This consists of a concentrated attack upon a given phase of the subject, five days a week for a period of five, six, seven or more weeks, and then switching to another subject which is dealt with in a similar manner.

The idea underlying this plan originated with teachers of shop subjects or practical arts work, and has been extensively employed in connection with manual training and home economics. However, the scheme appears to have possibilities for other studies. Thus, art, music, drawing, general science and other subjects to which but one or two hours per week have customarily been devoted may, perchance, be much more valuable for pupils if presented daily for a limited time only. Certainly the scheme has the advantage of enabling pupils to gain an appreciative acquaintance with more types of experiences than had the older plan. Thus at Saginaw, Michigan, under the operation of the so-called shop-round, boys in the junior high school are commonly made familiar with as many

as a dozen or fifteen different kinds of industrial work, while girls, during the same time, are made somewhat acquainted with six to ten aspects of household arts.

At Okmulgee, Oklahoma, H. B. Bruner and his staff of assistants have worked out the following plan for organizing and administering broadening and finding courses. In 1923-24, thirty-two such broadening and finding courses were provided for grades seven and eight. The list includes art, auto-mechanics, electricity, expression, music, journalism, drawing, science, cooking, sewing, typewriting, vocational information, woodworking, arts and crafts, banking, bricklaying and cement, carpentry, home nursing, interior decorating, millinery, printing, public speaking, and introductions to various so-called academic subjects. Each course extended over a period of nine weeks, meeting five times weekly, and each sought to give a typical cross section of the work to be offered in the later years of the school. The procedure in electing these courses is described by Mr. Bruner in his recent book, *The Junior High School at Work*. Therein he says:

During the teachers' aid week, five days before the opening of school, personal invitations were sent by the teachers to the parents of every prospective seventh and eighth-grade pupil. This invitation gave a short, simple explanation of the nature of the broadening and finding work, and attempted to impress the parents with the importance of their attending, along with their children, the enrolment exercises. The city press and the school paper, of course, carried publicity featuring the new work.

The plan for enrolment was as follows: No pupil was allowed to enrol until he had visited the classroom or laboratory where each broadening and finding course was to be taught, and had listened to a ten or fifteen minute explanation by the instructor in charge. The pupils, along with their parents, were sent on these visiting excursions in groups of thirty, each group following a set schedule that called for a visit to each room at a certain time. This work of visiting and becoming acquainted with what each broadening and finding course contained, consumed the better part of a day for each of the two grades, but the results were most gratifying, for at least ninety percent of the pupils enrolling and thirty percent of their parents received first-hand information regarding the work and the school. After the get-acquainted pilgrimage, the pupil was allowed two or three days to discuss the matter with his parents and was then asked to send in his choice-card, which was signed by the parent, the teacher-advisor, and the pupil.

Thus it is obvious from these excerpts and analyses that curricular provision for individual differences is varied in the extreme. In summary these schemes may be re-listed as follows:

1. Providing for the careful classification of pupils by means of testings or otherwise.
2. Providing for the removal of subnormal pupils entirely from the junior high school building.
3. Providing much opportunity for educational and vocational guidance.
4. Providing simpler types of subject-matter material for the less able pupils.
5. Providing enrichment of courses for the more able pupils.
6. Providing for the acceleration of the more able pupils.

7. Providing that the abler pupils may carry extra credits, either inside or outside the school.
8. Providing for shifting pupils from curricula to curricula in accordance with their needs.
9. Providing for complete sex segregation.
10. Providing for the separate sectioning of pupils entering the eighth or ninth grade of the junior high school from rural schools or schools having the seventh and eighth grades organized as part of the elementary system.
11. Providing an abundance of hand work for certain slower types of pupils and a larger quota of academic work for certain types of non-motor minded pupils.
12. Providing special teachers who devote much time tutoring backward pupils.
13. Providing ungraded rooms for misfits.
14. Providing the best possible teachers available for the junior high school work in general.
15. Providing for promotion by subject and as circumstances justify.
16. Providing for a marking system which takes the plan of homogeneous grouping fully into account.
17. Providing a sixty-minute class period with real supervised study.
18. Providing for the partial promotion of pupils to the senior high school, permitting them to carry work in both schools if individual interests are best served that way.
19. Providing for some phase of the project method of teaching and permitting pupils to advance from unit to unit of work as fast as their efforts and achievements warrant.
20. Providing for an extensive series of broadening and finding courses conducted intensively for relatively short periods of time.
21. Providing for pupils and their parents to secure a sampling of all the broadening and finding courses offered before elections of these courses are permitted.
22. Providing that any pupil who works up to his capacity, whatever be his grade classification, shall pass the course.

Provisions for meeting individual differences in respect to physical and social interests and needs are not apparently very well worked out in the junior high school. Here and there however there are exceptions to this rule. Individual physical and medical examinations made somewhat frequently; personal conferences by the school physician, school nurse and physical training directors; corrective gymnastic exercises; and exemptions from participation in certain forms of the generally required health exercises—these constitute the only common provisions for meeting differences of a physical sort. In a few schools, due to a lack of physical strength or to ill health, pupils are permitted to attend sessions on a part-time basis only, and in a few schools certain girls of normal mental ability are permitted to attend an ungraded room, usually situated on the first or lower floor of the building and to have all instruction of every sort, provided for them there.

Athletic sports of many sorts are finding general favor in junior high schools, but in only a few schools is more than incidental provision made for individual differences in tasks and abilities. The most conspicuous exception to this statement which has come to the writer's attention is that

of the Skokie Junior High School, Winnetka, Illinois. A fairly complete account of their work is given in the *School Review* for September, 1925. Suffice it to say here that much competitive activity is encouraged, teams of many sorts being organized for each season of the year. Pupils are assigned to teams in accordance with their tastes, their weights and their playing abilities, and each one is made to feel that however limited are his abilities he can contribute something to the general sportsmanship record of his school.

Provisions for meeting individual differences in a social way have, in part, been revealed in the discussion that has already been had. In addition to these however certain others deserve brief mention.

First, the word *extra* as connected with certain forms of social and recreational activity is rapidly becoming obsolete in school usage. As applied to collateral agencies that functioned—and functioned only—after the regular school day was over, the word was appropriate. The decided trend of the times is, however, to incorporate these so-called extra-curricular activities as an integral part of the regular school work. Consequently there is today opportunity for full supervision over them and for their organization in a manner to provide amply for individual differences of many kinds.

At the head of the list of these quasi-curricular organizations stand the leisure hour clubs. No progressive junior high school is without a goodly number of these clubs numbering from two or three to sixty, seventy, or one hundred. Clubs of every possible kind are included, ranging from art work to zither playing. Every pupil is free to join the club or clubs of his choice, and hence wonderful opportunities for the development of individual tastes and interests of a recreational sort are furnished.

Similarly auditorium or assembly programs are prepared by groups of pupils weekly or oftener and in these programs all pupils are given opportunity to participate in ways that are most suited to their tastes and needs. Musical organizations, literary societies, school service squads, monitorial work, the school paper, class and school offices—these, and other agencies of similar sorts give a wide range of opportunities for pupils of all grades and all abilities to gain experiences in unique ways that call for initiative, leadership, cooperation, and obedience to authority. They are indeed intensely socializing in their effects.

In conclusion, it seems fair to claim for most progressive junior high schools what one principal claims for his school, when he says:

The fact is our school is completely saturated with the idea of individual differences of pupils, to the extent that our so-called required courses and our regular school procedure are not insisted upon when we are dealing with an individual for whom some special treatment is apparently better.

In final analysis, therefore, the effectiveness of the junior high school, as that of all schools, resolves itself into a question of teachers and ad-

ministrators with an understanding of the principles and methods of the junior high school idea. Given these, provisions for individual differences will be devised.

TRENDS IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

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The development of the junior high school is evidenced in no direction more positively than in the change of emphasis in the consideration of this development of the school organization. The administrative considerations fundamental to the junior high school as an organized unit which at one time largely dominated the discussion of the subject, have given way increasingly to the consideration of teaching methods, of the qualification and training of teachers for junior high schools, of the problems of the junior high school pupils, of junior high school courses of study. The place of the junior high school in the school system seems now so fully assured that it has become unnecessary to devote time to its justification or defense. Rather, it is now necessary to analyze and study the problems involved in the teaching staff, the teaching material and method, the formulation, arrangement, and carrying out of the curriculum and the course of study. It is to the study of certain aspects of this last, namely, the curriculum that this paper devotes itself. The distinction between curriculum and course of study is that of the Committee on College Entrance Requirements, namely, "The curriculum refers to a group of subjects systematically arranged for any pupil or set of pupils. The course of study means the quantity, quality, and method of work in any given subject of instruction."¹

The most recently assembled material bearing upon the curriculum of the junior high school is that gathered by James M. Glass in 1923 and published by him in November, 1924, as a supplementary educational monograph of the University of Chicago under the title "Curriculum Practices in the Junior High School and Grades 5 and 6." This publication is based upon a study made by Doctor Glass, under the direction of the commonwealth fund. The study involved fourteen centers of junior high school organization, in cities ranging from Massachusetts to California and from the metropolis of the country to a city of less than twenty thousand population. The portion of the report bearing upon the curriculum itself was the basis of a contribution of Doctor Glass to the Second Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence, where, at pp. 227-242, is published a summary of "present curriculum practices in the junior high school."

The study was intended to be "merely a first step in a general examination of American practices. It arrives at one perfectly clear conclusion, namely, that the periods of time devoted in various school systems to a

¹ Johnston, Charles Hughes *High School Education*, Scribner's, New York, 1912.

given subject of instruction and to the subdivisions of that subject are impressively different." (Glass, p. 4.)

The divergence between the practices of the various cities in time allotment to the various subjects, in time allotment to any given subject, as English or mathematics, in the treatment of the various elements of a given subject and in the distribution of time among these various elements, is so great as to make almost a "chaotic condition (which) would be utterly discouraging if it were not for the prospect that there will inevitably follow efforts to bring about curriculum reconstruction in general by methods which have already been adopted in several of the fourteen school systems, namely, purposeful and persistent scientific research." (Glass, p. 8.)

An illustration of this condition is found in the situation of English in these fourteen school systems. With respect to the number of minutes allotted each week to this subject the following table (Glass, p. 4) shows the range:

<i>Grade</i>	<i>Highest Number of Minutes</i>	<i>Lowest Number of Minutes</i>	<i>Average Number of Minutes</i>
7	400	180	303.6
8	435	200	269.5
9	420	200	265.7

With respect to the percentage of the school week devoted to this subject, the following table (Glass, p. 5) shows the situation.

<i>Grade</i>	<i>Highest Percentage</i>	<i>Lowest Percentage</i>	<i>Average Percentage</i>
7	29.1	12.1	19.0
8	32.2	12.1	16.3
9	31.1	12.1	16.5

In the light of the situation revealed by the discrepancies shown in these tables, it is evident that there is still to be done a great amount of work upon the curriculum, with a view of coming closer to agreement upon the fundamentals which should be constant in all junior high school curricula, as well as upon the principles by which local variation should be organized and administered.

It has been quite generally agreed that the three year junior high school curriculum should rest upon a body of common subjects, taken by all students, which have been designated constants. Among these constants English, mathematics, the social studies, and science have an assured place, but art, home economics, industrial arts, and music have not yet gained a firm standing in the group of constants. In many instances, the subjects of this latter group are entirely elective throughout the three years, or are required for only a part of the years and are elective for the others. A fundamental need here is the determination, by means of extensive study, both of pupils and of the social needs by which the work of the schools is delimited, of the subjects which pupils should study, of the procedures by

which they should be taught and studied, of the relative value of these various subjects and of the various elements in each subject, in order that those responsible for the formulation of the curricula may have a reasonable basis for decision. Such study is only beginning to be seen as a necessity but it may be expected that definite advance will be made in the planning and organization of the means for pursuing the study, in the not remote future. The invaluable study of school objectives, and the recent experience of school systems the country over, in reorganizing elementary and high school courses of study, will be a great aid to those who may engage in a study of junior high school curricula.

The study of the junior high pupil and the application to junior high pupil situations of the extensive knowledge which psychology has secured of the adolescent youth, especially in the early adolescent years, will also be of vast help.

The scientific study in which school systems are engaging in ever increasing measure, generally by means of administrative bureaus of measurement and research, will supply a great fund of reliable information which will have direct bearing upon the issue. And the experimentation in which school systems are engaging, partly because of the uncertainties which now attach to the situation and to the necessity incumbent upon those following a pioneer trail to find, by a sort of trial and error method, the way out of the present uncertainty, will also be a great help in the situation. It will be admitted that the junior high school is not yet very strongly enmeshed in traditions and bound by precedent.

An outstanding illustration of the significance of this experimental attitude toward the problems of the junior high school is the experience of Superintendent H. B. Bruner, of the Okmulgee (Oklahoma) Schools. Superintendent Bruner discussed this program of "finding and broadening courses" at the Cleveland meeting of the Department of Superintendence in 1922, and has amplified his discussion of this and other aspects of the Okmulgee organization in his recently published Teachers College contribution entitled *The Junior High School at Work* (1925). Here is reported, to use the words of the author, a "five-year experiment (which) represents an effort to incorporate what seems to be the best founded theories regarding junior high school grades into a more or less typical American school situation."

Doctor Bruner describes "the broadening and finding scheme of the Okmulgee Schools" in detail and explains the manner of its working. He says that Briggs' first aim of a junior high school, namely "to offer that common integrating education which is a necessary foundation for every citizen" was used as the guiding principle in determining the core of the curriculum. This core consists of:

1. *English*, which includes:

- a. The literature of childhood
- b. Composition
- c. Spelling
- d. Grammar
- e. Penmanship
- f. Speaking

Accomplishment tests are given frequently (four times a year), in composition, spelling, penmanship, and grammar, to make certain that the children are up to standard. But these tools of English are not made the major portion of the course. The children are not denied the pleasure of following the escapades of *Tom Sawyer*, nor the adventures of the pirates of *Treasure Island*, in order to learn, only to forget, the difference between gerunds and objective complements. The course in English is offered five periods a week.¹

2. *Citizenship*, where an interesting study of the duties and privileges of the home, the city, and the county, together with their history and geography background, is made. In the eighth grade the state and federal governments are studied with their appropriate backgrounds.² These courses meet five periods per week.

3. *Mathematics*, which consists of:

- a. Sufficiently varied and engaging drill in the fundamentals to keep the pupils up to standard
- b. The practical portions of arithmetic
- c. Algebra through simple equations
- d. The conception of form from geometry and mechanical drawing³

This course meets five periods per week.⁴

4. *Physical education and health* required one period daily, unless a physician's certificate is presented.

5. *A combination course* required of all pupils along with the four mentioned above. This course consists of four different units of work, each unit offered for nine weeks. These units are:

a. *Music appreciation*—Here every seventh and eighth grade child is given the opportunity to become acquainted with the best there is in music from an apprecia-

¹ For details, see "Course of Study in English in Seventh and Eighth Grades," published by the Oklahoma Education Association.

² For the complete course of study, see "Course of Study in Citizenship for Seventh and Eighth Grades," published by the Oklahoma State Department of Education.

³ For detailed course of study, see "Course of Study for Junior High School Mathematics," published by the Oklahoma Education Association.

⁴ These three courses were written by the teachers of the Okmulgee, Oklahoma, schools, except for assistance on the English course secured from Miss Elliott of Drumright, Oklahoma.

tion standpoint. He is urged and enabled to hear the good things in music which are given in the city from time to time. Through the cooperation of the women's clubs, the noted musicians visiting the community are always brought before the children. Community singing, including patriotic and school songs, as well as some of our old universally loved religious hymns, occupy part of this period.

b. *Art Appreciation*—Here the work of the masters is presented through exhibits, readings, and stories. An attempt is made to imbue the pupils with an appreciation and love for the beautiful and artistic in all things. Great assistance is secured in this respect through the women's clubs of the town.

c. *Spelling and Penmanship*—This nine-weeks course is offered in the commercial department, and is supplementary to the writing and spelling which is offered incidentally in the English course.

d. *Geography*—This course is supplementary to the work in citizenship offered above, and provides for a more extensive study of needed geography facts than is permitted in the time allowed in the citizenship course. This unit was established because of the growing feeling among teachers and patrons for its need.

The five combinations of subjects mentioned above constitute the core of the curriculum, and are required of every seventh and eighth grade pupil. In them some of the fundamental things that had been offered in the first six grades are continued, although there are many eliminations and numerous variations.

It yet remains for us, however, to look at that part of the program which peculiarly provides for individual differences, exploration, and enrichment.

Each day following lunch, a period is set aside for *leisure activities*.¹ The aim of these activities is to broaden the child through cooperative work and play that he may be better fitted to enjoy the present and to take up life's later responsibilities. A premium is placed on the pupil's initiative throughout. Each instructor, in offering an activity, is asked to present those things from his department which are recreational in their nature. The question asked of the instructor is, "What is there in your department with which a child might profitably and pleasurably spend his leisure time?" The activity period is forty minutes in length, and is placed in the middle of the school day rather than its close, for in the past parents underestimated the value of work of this kind, and occasionally, requested the schools to release their children at the close of the so-called regular day.

Although the beginnings of the activities program were unimposing, the growth has been so rapid that it became necessary to employ a director for the work, the greater part of whose time is devoted to this alone. In 1923-1924 there were between seventy and eighty activities in progress every quarter. Every child is required to choose some activity or remain in the study hall. As a result of this ruling the study hall is vacant.

A few samples of activities will be given here, and a complete discussion will be presented elsewhere.

¹ The beginning of the *activity* work was originally borrowed from the Washington Junior High School, Rochester, New York.

The home economics department offers such activities as:

- a. Camp cooking
- b. Catering for special occasions
- c. Courtesy Club
- d. Fancy work, and the like

The science department presents:

- a. Burbank Club
- b. How-to-Treat-Your-Kodak Club, and the like.

The citizenship department offers:

- a. Social Service Club
- b. Travel Club
- c. Going to College Club, and the like.

The teachers of mathematics offer the following and similar activities:

- a. Visits to the stars
- b. Beauty of geometric designs, and the like.

In this period also come the literary societies, most of the musical organizations, and other extra-curricular activities. The activities are offered once or twice a week, and permitted to run as long as a sufficient number of elections on the part of the pupils attest to their popularity. Some of them run for one quarter, some for a semester, and others for the entire year. Since some are held weekly and others semi-weekly, it is possible for one pupil to take from two to four different activities each week, thus adding variety and interest to his leisure-time program. This is one period when pupils are given an absolute choice of what they shall do.

The activities have proved popular and profitable, and instructors, schoolboard, and patrons are now convinced of the fact that the time spent on them is far from being wasted.

While the activities, the combination courses, and the regular subjects mentioned above have many features of enrichment, the unique and distinctive feature of the program is the broadening and finding courses. These were first introduced as finding courses, but later the name was changed to finding and broadening, and finally to broadening and finding, indicating their purposes or functions as developing in the minds of the instructors.

These broadening and finding courses are nine and eighteen weeks in length—nine weeks in the seventh grade and nine or eighteen weeks in the eighth grade—and are open to every boy and girl in these two grades. Starting with only four of the nine-weeks' courses in the fall of 1918 the school had twenty-eight in operation in 1923-1924. It is the aim of these short courses to present glimpses of the future studies in the fields in which they are given, as well as to show the pupils the possibilities of the different professions and businesses of which each is a sample. In other words, these courses are cross-sections of later work. For example, the English-Latin broadening and finding course offered by the Latin department attempts to show the pupil what is in store for him if he continues his work in Latin in the senior high school, whereas the electrical broadening and finding courses presents not only cross-sections of the higher courses in

electricity, but also the problems and possibilities of electrical work as it is carried on in the city and in the nation. Practically every department in the senior high school contributes one or more nine-weeks' offerings for the benefit of the seventh and eighth grade pupils. For the sake of clarity a further example will be given and more in detail.

The automotive department offers nine weeks of work to seventh grade boys and nine and eighteen-weeks' courses to eighth grade boys. It is the aim of the instructor of these courses to point out to these young pupils the possibilities of this subject, and some of the bright spots as well as the drab ones are brought to the boys' attention. The youngster is brought in touch with the joys and thrills of the ignition work and the motor, but he is also compelled to experience the difficulties and dirt found in greasing a car. The instructor's aim is to paint for the boy an accurate picture of the working of the automotive department and the automotive industry. Incidentally, he is trying to discover which boys in this broadening and finding course have aptitudes for automobile work, and hence will make good grist for his more advanced courses.

These twenty-eight broadening and finding courses are elective. Every pupil, however, is compelled to take four out of the twenty-eight in the seventh grade, and two, three or four in the eighth grade, the only requirement being that one of the broadening and finding courses in each year must be science. This scheme enables a pupil to taste with profit six or eight different fields in these two years. For example, a boy in the seventh grade may take journalism for the first nine weeks; typewriting the second nine weeks; science the third nine weeks; and carpentry the fourth nine weeks. In the eighth year he may either take four more entirely different nine-weeks' courses or he may take two nine-weeks' courses, and one eighteen-weeks' course in that subject which he seemed to have liked best of the four which he chose in the seventh grade; or, if he and the school authorities think it likely that he will drop out of school at an early date, he may be allowed to specialize by taking two eighteen-weeks' courses; for example, an eighteen-weeks' course in carpentry and another eighteen-weeks' course in an allied field, such as mechanical drawing.

Hence, it is possible to take four broadening and finding courses in the seventh grade, four in the eighth grade, and begin with the differentiated curriculum in the ninth grade, or to take four courses in the seventh grade, two in the eighth, and differentiate in the ninth; or four in the seventh, and three in the eighth, and differentiate in the ninth.

These courses have been called *broadening and finding* courses, for (1) through them many of the pupils *find* the later courses for which they seem to be best fitted, and in which their interest seems to lie; (2) in some instances they *find* also their life work although this happens less frequently, and (3) whatever the finding, the school authorities claim that the pupils are profitably *broadened* by coming in contact with these different fields.

In order that the finding may be facilitated, part of the time of the shop courses is spent in regular instruction in vocational guidance. For

example, during the nine-weeks' broadening and finding course in **auto-mobile mechanics**, the instructor shows the boys the kind of work they can do and the amount of money they can earn by qualifying for a job in a garage. He also points out to them the greater amount of compensation in as well as the larger amount of preparation necessary for electrical engineering. There are also additional offerings in vocational guidance in the activity periods, where the possibilities in all fields are more or less carefully discussed.

But our experience seems to indicate that the most effective vocational guidance is that taught directly in connection with the work in the particular field, for the boy's decision seems to be reached more conclusively when he is experiencing actual working conditions, than when he is merely reading and talking about vocations. On the other hand, as has been pointed out above, there is a constant endeavor on the part of each instructor to find whether or not the pupils who come under his care in broadening and finding courses are suitable for further work in his particular department. Hence, teachers as well as pupils are keenly interested in the *finding* process.

Here, of course, a danger arises from the fact that certain instructors are better salesmen than others, and a pupil is sometimes lured into a field which is not as well suited to him as some other might have been. This danger has been carefully watched, and upon checking is found to be practically negligible, for since each pupil has an opportunity to make six or eight different selections and hence comes in contact with many departments, the only influence of better salesmanship appears in the order in which the pupils enrol in the broadening and finding courses. Other things being equal, the good salesman gets the first chance at the pupil he wants, but during the time the pupil is enrolled in the seventh and eighth grades, five or six other departments have also had an opportunity to present their wares.

The chief aim of the broadening and finding courses, and the chief value, seems to be the broadening effect. While for purposes of finding, a more or less typical cross-section of future school work or life-work is portrayed, nevertheless an attempt is made to present only material which is in itself worthwhile. Hence, if the finding were reduced to zero quantity, which would be well nigh impossible, the enrichment alone would more than justify the cost.

Another very definite trend in the development of the junior high school curriculum is the organization of subject matter in a unified series. This is evident in the number of mathematics textbook series which organize the mathematics of the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades in a continuous way, involving arithmetic, algebra, and intuitive geometry. A similar development is taking place in English and, to some degree, in the social sciences. It may be expected that a similar development will take place in the sciences of the junior high school and ultimately in all the subjects which will be considered constants in the core curriculum, as well as in the field of electives.

THE PLATOON SCHOOL—ITS ADVANTAGES¹

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The platoon school, while viewed by many persons as an experiment, is really a going concern. In over 100 cities and towns widely distributed through 30 states this plan is now in successful operation. Therefore in discussing the merits of this kind of school it is not necessary for us to theorize or draw upon our imagination, for we now have accurate data in increasing abundance which clearly reveals not only what is now being accomplished but what has been accomplished over a period of years in schools of this type.

It would therefore seem possible for anyone who desires to appraise the worth of this organization to approach the matter with an open mind, to analyze the facts and draw his conclusions.

"The public school systems of this country are gradually coming under the control of high class men who are not only well trained but filled with a desire to improve their school systems, and enlarge the educational opportunities of the children under their charge.

However any educational reformer is confronted by a long line of obstacles which he must hurdle if he would regenerate his schools. He is sure to have all the inertia and complacency which long service in one place always breeds. He is quite likely to have a public who believe that training in the three R's is the chief and almost the only function of the elementary schools. He very likely hears a continual clamor from the taxpayer for better service at less cost. He is also probably aware that he has disgruntled teachers as well as patrons in the community who are only awaiting any attempted change in procedure on his part to embarrass him in his community. This is a picture which is reproduced over and over again in many American towns and cities.

A superintendent may in the quiet of his study contemplate the advantages of the project plan, with its complete abandonment of the formal school organization of the past, or the ideal of complete individualized instruction in the essentials as worked out in the Dalton and Winnetka plans may challenge his interest, but he would be courageous indeed if he undertook to make the extreme readjustments necessary to introduce one of these systems into his schools.

In this situation many superintendents, seeing breakers ahead, have been content to temporize with the old organization, and bide their time. It is because some superintendents cannot rest content with such half-way measures that they have looked with favor upon the platoon school.

The essential feature of the platoon plan is a duplicate use of all of the facilities of the school which makes possible a balanced program in which the social and cultural aspects of the curriculum as well as the fundamentals may receive a full measure of emphasis. This plan not only breaks down the limitations of the traditional school and permits a greatly en-

¹ This is an abstract. For the entire address, see the *Elementary School Journal*, volume XXVI, pages 733-744 for June, 1922.

riched round of activities, but by abandoning the "reserved seat for every pupil" idea greatly increases the capacity and efficiency of the school plant.

In establishing the platoon school it is recognized that the tools of education—the traditional three R's—must continue to be the common possession of every child. It is also recognized that there is another group of self-expressive and socialized activities for which every school must provide if it is to serve the needs of its pupils in this generation. It is in providing adequately for this important group of social experiences that the platoon school is able to render a service which the traditional school because of its limitations cannot render.

In a platoon school the children are divided into two alternating groups or platoons. While one group pursues the study of the "essentials" in the home rooms, the pupils of the other platoon are participating in socialized activities in the auditorium, gymnasium, on the playground, in the library, in the nature laboratory, in the art, literature, music, and industrial arts rooms.

In the home room the conditions approximate those of a modern, well-organized classroom of the traditional kind, except the home room teacher devotes herself entirely to reading, writing, spelling, and arithmetic and has no responsibility for the special kinds of instruction. In the home room, where the pupil spends at least half of the school day, there is the personal contact of pupil with teacher which insures her interest in his progress and welfare. The home room teacher, freed from the worries of teaching subjects for which she has no aptitude, becomes a specialist in the tool subjects. In her instruction there is on the one hand a place for socialized method and much pupil participation, while on the other there is in some systems, notably Detroit, an abundance of individualized material which permits a pupil to instruct himself and progress at his own individual rate.

The special departments are all in charge of trained special teachers, who are giving instruction in these special fields because they prefer to do so and because they have a peculiar fitness for the work to be done. Thus a child in his gymnasium and play has the oversight and aid of a trained teacher of physical education; in his nature study laboratory, with its conservatory and an environment which furnishes the proper atmosphere, the child learns to love, understand, and appreciate nature under a nature enthusiast. Likewise in the auditorium, the library, the art, music, and literature rooms the pupil finds himself under the guidance of teachers who are chosen because of their fitness to do the particular work they are doing. It must be understood that in none of these special departments is it the purpose to master subject-matter. On the contrary there are no tests, no attempts to measure progress in definite terms, but rather there is an attempt to help children to work cooperatively, to give them a chance to express their own ideas in constructive projects, and to expose them to the influence of good music, good literature, and art.

The transformation of a non-platoon school into a platoon school is easy because the platoon school readily utilizes the entire teaching corps of the traditional school. The teachers who prefer the regular subjects are placed

in home rooms, while teachers who have specialized ability find places in special rooms. The platoon school offers the following distinct advantages:

1. It preserves all of the worthwhile opportunities of the traditional school. The home room teacher retains the personal touch with pupils, and provides efficient instruction in the three R's.

2. With its special teachers working in special rooms where the equipment and entire environment gives the proper background for the work, the platoon school is providing a round of experiences which could not be offered in the non-platoon school organized on the one-teacher plan.

3. The auditorium in charge of selected and specially trained teachers offers daily opportunities to pupils to participate in an extensive variety of audience and self-expressive activities, including group singing, dramatics, operettas, musical appreciation, safety, health and civic clubs, dances, pageants, special day celebrations, and lectures and speeches by prominent persons from the community or from abroad. The auditorium does not provide merely an occasional assembly but a regular daily period during which pupils may participate in informal socialized activities. These advantages are not possible in the regular school.

4. The platoon organization provides for individualized group instruction in the fundamentals, and group and individual projects in the special fields.

5. If introduced after proper preparation and discussion the reaction upon the community will be favorable, and the interest of parents in the school will be greatly increased.

6. The reaction of principals and teachers toward the platoon plan after the period of readjustment is past is overwhelmingly favorable. A recent survey of 35 cities having schools of this type shows that in a great majority of them from 90 percent to 100 percent of the teachers favor the platoon as against the traditional school.

7. The pupils are uniformly happier and more interested in their work than they were in the regular type of school. The variety of work, and frequent change of classes makes a strong appeal to the pupils.

8. The greater advantages of the platoon school can be provided with little if any increase in expense. In Detroit it has been found that:

1. The platoon school increases the capacity of buildings, thus decreasing per pupil cost of construction.

2. That it requires less teachers to a given number of pupils than Detroit employs in its non-platoon schools. In a great majority of instances in which old buildings have been reorganized on the platoon plan, it has been possible to increase the enrolment in the school, lengthen the school day, and reduce the number of teachers.

3. It has been found that while the amount spent for equipment in new platoon school buildings is slightly more, the cost per pupil due to increased capacity is less.

While the platoon plan is looked upon by many persons as something new and untried, it really is not. The first school of this kind was organized by William Wirt nearly a quarter of a century ago. Since that time the plan has been successfully tried in over 500 schools, in over 100 cities

having a combined population of over 16,000,000 people. In 21 cities, including Detroit and Pittsburgh, it has been officially adopted.

The names of the superintendents who look with favor on the platoon plan include McAndrew of Chicago, Broome of Philadelphia, Cody of Detroit, Davidson of Pittsburgh, Jones of Cleveland, Potter of Milwaukee, Weet of Rochester, Wirt of Gary, Corson of Newark, Newlon of Denver, Lewis of Flint, Claxton of Tulsa, Stetson of Dayton, Crozier of Dallas, Glenn of Birmingham, Rice of Portland, Oregon, Studebaker of Des Moines, Hughes of Sacramento, Hartwell of St. Paul, Cammack of Kansas City, Mo., Bair of Colorado Springs, Colorado, Risley of Pueblo, Colorado, Borden of South Bend, Reid of Youngstown,—a veritable Who's Who among superintendents.

In view of this long record of achievement and the support which it has from men of the highest standing in the profession, the platoon plan is entitled to receive fair, openminded consideration which often has been denied it in the past.

Not since the days when Horace Mann battled against the Boston schoolmasters in behalf of the traditional graded school, has any innovation in education aroused such a show of intolerance and animosity as the platoon school. It was used as a political football in New York, was subjected to misrepresentation and vicious attacks by the teachers' federations of Chicago and Milwaukee, and even among educators of standing in the profession it often has been accorded scant consideration. Nevertheless it has thrived under criticism and as one may judge by the company it keeps it has about reached the point where it must be recognized as a sane, reasonable method of meeting the demands which the twentieth century is making upon the schools. The platoon school has been weighed in the balance for over 20 years and it has not been found wanting.

THE PLATOON SCHOOL—ITS DISADVANTAGES

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In the consideration of this as of other educational policies, it is important always to bear in mind that schools are established and maintained by the people for the sole purpose of promoting learning on the part of children. They do not exist in order that school plants and teaching staffs may be needed nor that any special organization of schools may be put into operation.

It is important to bear in mind also that we are only considering the wisdom of employing the platoon organization of schools below the seventh grade. The two papers on this topic seek merely to present fairly and dispassionately the strengths and weaknesses of the platoon organization in promoting the realization of the results in the education and socialization of children which are desirable and possible of achievement by the close of the sixth grade.

It is very necessary to clarity in this discussion that all should understand that we are not contrasting the platoon school and the results we

may expect from its work with the old time traditional school and the results that may be expected from it. Rather we are examining the platoon type of the modern socialized school to determine whether it is adapted to secure the results expected in the first six grades in as large measure as they may be secured by the modern socialized school if some other type of organization and operation than the platoon type is employed. Insofar as the discussion indicates or implies contrasts, they will be between the platoon type of school organization and operation and a freer, less mechanical plan of organizing and operating schools. Both types of schools, however, we shall assume, may be considered modern socialized schools.

We shall understand also that a modern socialized school aims to equip its pupils directly, definitely, certainly, economically, and fundamentally for the practical duties and responsibilities of all sorts which are involved in living successfully. Such a school is, therefore, responsible for equipping its pupils with necessary usable knowledge, functional skills, and effective methods of studying and working. Wholesome right attitudes must also be established in the largest possible measure through the work of the modern socialized school.

To further define the issues in this discussion, it is necessary to indicate the respects in which the freer types of school and the platoon type are alike and the respects in which they are different. Any fair listing of the characteristics of each reveals that they have many more points of likeness than of difference. They are seeking the same large ends and the same outcomes through their work. They serve the same kind and variety of children. The teacher of one type of school is not distinguishable from the teacher in the other type of school in personality, training, or potential ability. The same curricular content and the same types of activity are to be found in both types of schools. The disciplinary problems of the teacher are the same regardless of the type of school. The laws governing how children learn are no different. The instructional equipment and materials used do not differ. The modern non-platoon school plant provides all the special rooms and features which are considered so essential in the platoon school, such as a library, a gymnasium, an auditorium, science rooms, etc. The standards set for realization and the means employed for measuring achievement are the same. Yet other important and fundamental likenesses will doubtless occur to you.

Three important differences only distinguish the platoon school from the freer types of schools: (1) A school plant of a given size has a greater pupil capacity if the school using it employs a platoon organization; (2) The platoon school departmentalizes its teaching in all grades to a much greater extent; (3) It operates on a program requiring the types of work to change and the pupils to move at the same time throughout the building and plant in use.

Our discussion now narrows itself to raising and answering the question as to whether better educative results, the better socialization of children, may be expected in the first six grades from such increased numbers, such departmentalization of teaching, and such programming of work as the

platoon school employs, or from the plans of organizing teaching and programming work as they are developing in freer types of schools. The discussion will be concerned from this point with seeking an answer to this question.

It is hardly necessary to remind you that the discussion must be theoretical throughout. The results secured by the two types of schools are not all measurable nor is scientific data available to contrast the measurable results which have been secured by the two types of schools.

In seeking the answer to the question raised, we must bear in mind the opening statement of this discussion, that schools are maintained by the people merely that fundamental learning and proper socialization may be promoted in children. Before we may answer in any basic way the major question raised above, as to whether the platoon or the non-platoon type of school is more desirable in achieving the people's purpose, we must remind ourselves of the findings of sociology, psychology, and good school practice in reference to how fundamental learning takes place with definiteness, certainty, and economy.

Both the platoon and the non-platoon advocates agree that learning takes place most satisfactorily when the conditions are as natural as possible. Mr. Spain says (*Teachers College Record*, December, 1925, page 209): "It is a fact frequently noted that a child's experiences gained outside of school function better and are more unified than those acquired in school." In their theoretical discussions both camps advocate the use of the natural procedure in promoting the learning and socialization of children. Mr. Spain has well said in defending the platoon school (*Teachers College Record*, December, 1925, p. 296): "It is not claimed that the platoon school represents a different philosophy, or method from that exemplified in our best schools of the non-platoon type." Dr. Bonser has well said in opposing the platoon school (*Teachers College Record*, December, 1925, page 310): "Basically, the fundamental reason for opposing it (the platoon school) is the principle that *no highly artificial plan* can minister as adequately to the complex and highly interrelated needs of the growing child as can a natural plan, permitting more intimate personal contact, interplay of minds, and sympathy between pupils and teachers."

Under what circumstances are the conditions for learning most natural? All agree that ideal, natural conditions for learning are most in evidence when a competent searcher for some new truth, insight, or procedure goes about an investigation free from school restraints or teacher domination. Two or three well-known illustrations may be cited. Steinmetz of the General Electric Company was free to work under ideal natural conditions. What he didn't know that he needed, he sought to learn through investigations developed and carried forward without restraint, using such sources and procedures as promised help on his problems. Edison works so in his laboratory. Dr. Banting, the discoverer of Insulin, learned richly in the process of his investigations where the conditions for work were singularly free and natural.

Under school control such natural conditions for learning are available in general only to the graduate student. He is at liberty to determine upon a problem which has great significance for him and to go about breaking it up into the questions which must be answered before his problem is solved. He meets difficulties which he over comes as economically as possible; he encounters obstacles which he finds ways to remove. In all of these undertakings his efforts are focused upon solving the large problems which gave him a start and which supplies him impetus until it is completed.

In the school where it is sought to keep the learning conditions as natural as possible, the teacher employs stimuli, environmental influences, in the form of lessons, readings, lectures, lantern slides, and the like, which he judges are adapted to the mental level of his pupils and in keeping with the general ends for which he believes organized society wishes him to strive. Resulting from these stimuli are certain effects upon the group or class. When the effects are all resolved, if the teacher's effort succeeds, some enterprise has been set up for execution, some responsibility has been assumed by the group, some undertaking has been launched which has educative, socializing possibilities if successfully carried to completion. The teacher's object is to launch his class in an enterprise, responsibility, or undertaking which shall be meaningful, and significant to the class, and at the same time rich in educative, socializing possibilities. School tasks thus launched are distinctively purposive to the pupils and hence their successful execution is fundamentally motivated. When the pupils proceed to perform the task they are attempting (it may be issuing a school paper, or providing an assembly program, or dramatizing the Constitutional Convention, for example), they find many questions which they cannot at once answer, problems they must solve, difficulties and obstacles which they must overcome and many needs they must satisfy. If the task has been accepted as theirs and as important to them, then they are anxious to master the questions, problems, difficulties, obstacles, needs which arise, for they are truly theirs. Their mastery is necessary to the achievement they wish for themselves. Under such circumstances, the conditions for studying, investigating, experimenting that they may learn in order to do what they wish are approximately as natural as those under which we saw that Steinmetz, Edison, Banting, and graduate students worked.

Learning which takes place under such natural conditions may be abundantly illustrated from the daily work obtaining in good schools. Such learning conditions are not only ideally desirable; they have been achieved—not generally, but in progressive modern schools. A few brief illustrations will make definitely clear the point of view maintained here and afford a partial basis for evaluating the distinctive features of the platoon school.

The following sketch of a May-day party conceived and executed by a third grade shows the pupils at work under natural conditions and reveals the contribution of each of the various subjects of the school to the unified finished result. The object of the pupils was to provide a party which

their parents would be interested to attend. The program provided was to show the visiting parents some of the interesting work their children were doing in school. During the month of April, much of the program time was given to developing plans for the party and the program for it. In their language time, the pupils learned how to write a formal invitation, letters asking for help, and letters of thanks and appreciation. They also learned how to write out a program and prepare it in suitable form for the use of their guests. They also wrote papers telling some of their experiences in earning money needed in giving the party. In the drawing lessons they prepared program covers and illustrations needed in presenting their program. Their arithmetic work was concerned with various computations necessary to financing their party and to planning for their guests. Music and physical education time was used in preparing numbers for the program. History contributed a major program number which was dramatized.

In the above it is clear that the pupils worked under the motive of successfully executing a worthy purpose. All of the work of the school contributed to the end set for realization. Learning occurred in the process of meeting various problems and overcoming various difficulties involved in completing their undertaking. There was no loss in effort from going to a special teacher of art, music, physical education, dramatization. When special help was needed to improve the product they were seeking, it was secured. Some help was secured from the pupils of other rooms in the building.

The learning experiences of a second grade, reported in the October, 1925, *Journal of Educational Method*, illustrates beautifully the rich results derived from working under natural conditions. The purpose was to study the little children of many lands through an imaginary trip to these various lands. The undertaking came about in a very natural way and the initial motive supplied the necessary urge to carry out the enterprise with rich results to geography and the other subjects which became related as the work moved forward. Reading, spelling, language, arithmetic, music, art, physical education, civics, and nature study were unified in the large enterprise. Motive for necessary drill operated fundamentally throughout. What was done from start to finish arose from the pupils' real need for the knowledge or skills which they acquired. The teacher reports that the course of study in all subjects was covered with many values to the pupils not usually derived from the assigned work. Aspects of the undertaking which proved too difficult for the second grade but which were important to the finished result were willingly done by higher grades, thus affording all the pupils fine experiences and good training in cooperation.

Such learning experiences as the above could be multiplied indefinitely. These are typical of both procedure and results when the learning conditions are kept natural and the pupils' purpose is kept unified.

Teaching which promotes learning under such natural conditions as are illustrated above is the ideal of every up-to-date socialized school. The

leading thinking platoonists wish such learning conditions for their pupils. They recognize that purposive, motivated effort is productive of more fundamental learning and that such learning takes place with greater definiteness, certainty, and economy under natural conditions.

With this view before us of the conditions under which learning takes place most satisfactorily, we may now consider the effects of the greater number of pupils and of such departmentalizing and programming as are employed by the platoon school. Do these three distinctive features of the platoon school tend to promote the establishment and maintenance of natural conditions for learning, or do they tend to exercise a somewhat negative effect from this standpoint?

The first distinctive feature claimed for the platoon school is that any plant of a given size, if organized as a platoon school, will serve more pupils than will a non-platoon school. One must understand, however, that this is accomplished by providing other facilities than standard classrooms. The Gary survey report (general account, page 27) shows that there is no saving in plant area resulting from platooning a school. Other facilities are provided although fewer standard classrooms are used. Experience shows that these facilities are quite as, if not more, expensive than regular classrooms. Figures indicate that the per pupil cost for providing a plant for a platoon school is about equal to, or somewhat greater than for a non-platoon school.

Although in the matter of plant cost, the platoon school may or may not be at a disadvantage, this is not the most serious question arising from its effort to care for numbers. Much more serious than this is the large number of different pupils, running into the hundreds, each special subject teacher must care for per day and per week. Correspondingly serious is the number of different teachers each child must meet and adapt himself to daily, varying from 8 to 10. Any experienced teacher knows that natural learning conditions cannot be maintained under these conditions.

There is further the health menace of seating pupils of all grades in seats of a given size in the special subjects rooms. Evidently these seats are much too large for lower grade pupils, or entirely too small for upper grade pupils. In the home rooms from which these children in grades one to six come to the special rooms, in any properly seated school, will be found at least five sizes of desks, and in addition, some adjustable desks will be used. While the number served by a school plant is not an unimportant factor, it should not be the determining factor.

A major reason urged by its advocates in support of the platoon school in its early history was the number it served. Now its advocates would have us believe it is the ideal school in which to carry out the most modern views of how children learn and become socialized. In considering its merits, it must not be forgotten, however, that it was not originated to supply better learning conditions, but to take care of the increasing numbers in rapidly growing cities.

The second distinctive feature of the platoon school consists in the plan and extent of departmentalizing the work. Reading, writing, arithmetic,

spelling, and formal English are taught by the home room teacher. Evidently the home room teacher is essentially a drill teacher in view of the subjects assigned. The other work is done in special rooms by special teachers. Outside the home room the work in the library, auditorium, gymnasium, play yard and in science, literature, music, art is carried by seven or eight different persons when the platoon organization is most ideal. Such an organization requires each child to adjust himself to eight or ten teachers daily and each special subjects teacher to meet daily more groups of children than she can possibly know the dominant purposes of and more individual pupils than it is possible for her to know and guide as individual in the learning process.

The almost inevitable result of this situation, in which the platoon school child finds himself, is an absence of natural working and learning conditions such as we saw were essential to the best work by Steinmetz, Edison, Banting, graduate students, and such as we saw were possible in elementary schools in the May-day party and the geography illustrations. Such detailed departmentalization is almost certain to result in the teaching of subjects as such rather than in their mastery by pupils who need them in the achievement of some major purpose. The drill in the home room necessary to establish an ability can only be meaningful as it is motivated by some need for the ability which the pupils have discovered in their effort to execute an enterprise requiring more ability than they possess, to write, or spell, or figure, and the like. With the drill work divorced from the more cultural subjects as obtains under platoon departmentalization, it is very apt to be formal, routine-like, and mechanical, lacking in fundamental motive and inspiration.

In defense of the many teachers a child meets in a platoon school, it is said that no one teacher is capable of teaching all of the subjects provided by the modern school curriculum. That may be granted, although many of you could cite outstanding exceptions to the statement. A great teacher, who is absorbed in and devoted to the welfare of his class of 35 or 40 pupils may lack a little in the technic of art or music, and yet so relate the work in these subjects to the total growth of his pupils as to bring them far greater growth and inspiration than the specialist can bring them with all of his technique when he is teaching hundreds daily.

We are not compelled, however, to choose between one teacher, who teaches all subjects, and the many teachers required by the platoon plan. The teachers in charge of the same or bordering grades, two or three in number, may be so chosen as to provide excellent ability in all lines of work. Such exchanges of work between these teachers may be planned as will insure excellent teaching in each subject. This plan keeps the numbers small that any teacher meets and each child has but few teachers. By this simple arrangement also each teacher can know, through conferences with his neighboring teacher, just how to carry his work so that it fits into and furthers the major purpose of each group of pupils with whom he works. This plan provides all of the departmentalization necessary to secure good ability in the teaching of each subject. It preserves

natural learning conditions, and it avoids many dangers inherent in such departmentalization as obtains in a large platoon school.

Mr. Spain has well said (*The Platoon School*, page 85): "It is urged that in a departmentalized school, instead of having a series of experiences which are related and which have a common end, what the pupil really has is a series of unrelated experiences in which he realizes no common purpose. The result is disintegration."

Mr. Spain further says (page 87): "In the platoon school departmentalization in special subjects exists in all grades. It is conceded that the work might become unrelated and disintegrated."

I commend the thought and point of view in these quotations to the thoughtful and prayerful consideration of all platoon enthusiasts. The dangers inherent in extreme departmentalization are so great that we may expect them to be overcome, if at all, only in the unusual school.

The third distinctive feature of the platoon school is that all pupils and classes in a building change types and places of work at the same time. By reason of this characteristic, the pupils in platoon schools often refer to their school, affectionately perhaps, as "the grand change school." That great value is attached to this feature of the school is evidenced by Mr. Spain's statement on page 56 of his book on the platoon school in which he says: "The program is the most important factor of the organization."

Any large school or other organization must systematize its work, planning for proper balances in work and in the use of the facilities provided. The great danger is, of course, that the mechanics considered essential to the smooth operation of a plan may be so magnified and given such right of way as to lessen greatly the very results the school exists to accomplish. This is just what is in danger of happening in the platoon school. Natural ways of working with resulting learning can hardly be programmed with such mathematical, mechanical, machine-like accuracy that the work of 25 to 30 groups of pupils should all be changed at once. There need to be ways to depart from the regular set schedule so that the job a class has in hand may be done with thoroughness and deliberation when the conditions are right. In a non-platoon organization, when the conditions strongly suggest it, the red tape schedule may be cut into blue ribbons in the interest of large achievement in learning, since all rooms of an entire building are not compelled to observe a uniform program.

I was asked to speak on the negative on this topic. I would not be true to my understanding of the situation, however, if I leave the impression that the platoon school is totally bad in plan and results. Were I speaking in support of the platoon school, I should be able to make a strong case for it from many standpoints. My duty, however, was to sound warnings, to point out dangers, to suggest possible weaknesses in the platoon school, to urge upon you things which should be guarded against in considering the use of the platoon school. However, if I were operating a platoon school, I would try to believe in it and safeguard my pupils and teachers against its inherent weaknesses.

In closing the discussion, let me cover several points briefly which there

is not time to discuss fully. In the first place, be not deceived or misled by the spread of the platoon school. That alone is not evidence that it is the solution of the ills needing correction in the traditional school. The fact that it is one of the fads in modern education is sufficient reason to millions for making use of it without knowing more than superficially its merits or demerits.

In the second place, the fact that the people without it in a city, want it, is not of itself alone evidence that they should have it. The people are very apt to want what others have, if it is new and talked about by the press.

In the third place, the fact that when its results are measured to its advantage against the results of other types of schools in a city is not alone convincing evidence of its superiority. It can well be that the greater attention it gets, since it is new and under scrutiny, will produce better results. The administrative and supervisory staff is apt to give it sufficient attention to insure its producing better results. In considering the comparative merit of results secured from the platoon and non-platoon schools in the same city, it should be borne in mind that those making these tests, so far as results have been published, are apt to be biased judges. The only impersonal survey of the results produced by a school system organized on the platoon plan are from the Gary schools. Unfortunately, these results are old, going back to 1918. The results found there, however, do not encourage one very strongly to believe in the superior achievements which may be expected from children attending platoon schools. I note these comments from the general account of the Gary school survey:

"The Gary experiment has not yet successfully solved the problems insofar as necessary instruction in common school branches is concerned" (page 105).

"The quality of instruction at Gary falls short of what is necessary" (page 102).

At the conclusion of the Handwriting test this statement is made: "Gary results in the free choice writing test are lower in quality" than the standard for the country would require (page 90).

The following was the conclusion of the Spelling test: "It would appear, therefore, that as thus tested, grade by grade, the Gary children spell less well than the children of the 84 cities with which comparison was made" (page 94).

The conclusion of the Arithmetic test was: "The Gary results compare unfavorably with scores elsewhere obtained" (page 97).

As a result of the Reading test the following statement is made: "The Gary children, with the possible exception of the second and third grades, read more slowly and make slightly more errors than the children of other systems" (page 101).

In the fourth place, the attractiveness of certain physical features of the platoon school may have too great weight in leading administrators to conclude that the platoon school must be adopted in order to secure these features. I refer to the provision of special rooms, gymnasias, auditoriums,

and the like. All of these features are fine and all modern schools need them in their work, but it is not necessary to adopt the platoon organization in order to have these. Some of the best schools of which I know in the United States possess all of these features, but they are operated under a freer organization and a freer program schedule than obtains in the platoon school. School administrators must be courageous enough to demand these features in schools because they are essential to the socialization of the school and to the results the school should secure for each child. No one, however, should adopt the platoon organization merely as a means of securing these desirable features. They can be had on other grounds.

EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES OF THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

MERLE PRUNTY, PRINCIPAL, TULSA CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL
TULSA, OKLAHOMA

The national commission for the reorganization of secondary education set forth in 1918 the most comprehensive group of educational objectives yet conceived or enunciated for the American high school.

But in spite of the fact that these objectives were approved by us and the further fact that practically every school of education and teachers' college in the country hastened to accept these cardinal objectives their transforming possibilities have been but feebly felt in the reorganization and administration of the upper years in the fettered traditional high school. Faith has not been evidenced with practice. We men in the field have been bold enough in our pronouncement of objectives but entirely too timid in conforming and coordinating our school procedures with functioning educational performance. Two generations of high school students have already come and gone since 1918. The elementary and junior high schools have aggressively marched forward. Why stand we of the senior high school idly by?

It is most inspiring to contemplate the possibilities and the ultimate consequences which might well emanate from an adequate and wide-spread acceptance of our senior high school aims if supported by aggressive re-centering of educational policies. We now have nine times as many high school students as any other country in the world. High school attendance is becoming well nigh universal, representing every stratum of our complex society. Society, scarred by its own moral and religious neglect and lack of educational vision, is turning to the schools to carry its intricate burdens. Unprecedented obligations rest upon us as high school administrators to evaluate with discernment and discretion our relative opportunities for service to the youth entrusted to our directive care. Inevitably nations look to the cradle for their future and entrust the care of their destiny to the hands of youth. Whatever we wish to see wrought out in the next generation of society must now be wrought in the schools. What then are the great educational challenges of society which unmistakably confront us today wherein the senior high school may voice its specific contribution.

Broadly phrased, the two outstanding contributions which we of the senior high school can make to society come through provision for individual differences and training for character and citizenship. In the final analysis all specific and unique administrative efforts if rightly conceived, should justify their contribution to and motivate one or the other of these broad fundamental objectives. I wish to mention in the time allotted eight specific lines of preparation which can help boys and girls to react appropriately to the life situations which they now normally face. Such preparation calls for the impartation of knowledge, the acquirement of habits, the instillation of ideals, and the cultivation of appreciations each of which should conform with each of our accepted educational objectives for the senior high school. Our preparation and our conforming efforts must be included in a core curriculum for *all* students and supplemented by elective opportunities.

I. Preparation for health and physical development—We have been trying chiefly to harvest the fruits of culture without sufficient care of the human plant. It is our business to know that every student is receiving health instruction and acquiring health habits in the direction of right nourishment, invigorating exercise, scrupulous cleanliness, and in the establishment and preservation of upstanding posture and abounding vitality. Ill health and anemia are the basis of moral delinquency and are the nation's greatest liability. The grouchy, the pessimist, and the disturber generally are the victims of dormant bodily functions. The health program of the senior high school calls for the observance of the following policies:

1. For a universal program of hygiene and physical education providing for individual differences in each year;
2. For an intra-mural program of diversified athletics for all in addition to the interschool teams for the few;
3. For a school athletic code through which love for clean sport and play, group loyalty, strong scholarship, and desirable school citizenship can be instilled;
4. For regular and frequent medical and dental inspections, supported by school clinics, visiting nurses, and field nurses;
5. For regular and frequent medical and physical examinations with the consequent individual and corrective adaptation of the physical and classroom programs to the findings of the examinations;
6. For instruction concerning the beauty, sacredness, and naturalness of self-controlled sex life and its contribution to the normal physical, mental, emotional and hereditary life;
7. For close coordination of dietary and nutrition curriculum materials in science, home economics, and physical education;
8. For scientifically administered food kitchens and cafeterias;
9. For hygienic toilet rooms, locker rooms, and showers; and
10. For a recognition of sound health principles in the physical features of the school plant, such as correct lighting, ample ventilation, proper heating, adequate play and recreation grounds.

In my visits to twenty-one large high schools during the past year I found (even in cities reputed for their health programs) glaring violations of this last principle. I need not estimate the stupendous waste in

fuel and electricity occasioned by overheated school rooms and unnecessary use of lights, but what is even worse is the hypersusceptibility to illness, the eye strain, and the mental lethargy of students and teachers resulting from overheated, poorly ventilated and lighted class rooms. By carefully checking on this feature of building administration in Tulsa during the year 1924-25 we were able to save approximately forty thousand dollars (\$40,000) on the heat and lighting bill of the preceding year—enough to equip the school's medical and dental clinic and administer them for one year.

At this point may I urge the use of outdoor fields and gyms for our physical education and athletic program. I believe that in fully half of the high schools of the nation ninety percent of the physical work could and should by all means be done either in the open or in open air gyms. Indoor gymnasiums have had far too large and costly a part in school health administration. No forced ventilation system yet contrived can replace the invigorating, circulating air of the out-of-doors. Would it not be far saner to require students to put on heavier clothing if need be, and go out of doors than to dress in lighter clothing and remain in a stuffy gym? Preparation for health then recognizes fundamental and far-reaching physical, mental, emotional, and biological influences for every boy and girl which will prevent disappointment, misery, economic loss, and poverty. It is the school's foundational opportunity to conserve its individuals and to equip them with sufficient bodily vigor and with a mental and emotional outlook that they may profit from the school's program of contemplated service.

II. *Preparation for communication, expression, computation, and investigational discovery.*—Intelligent participation in our increasingly complex democracy demands a skillful knowledge and appreciation of the advanced forms of oral and written expression, mathematical computation, and graphic representation and interpretation. It calls for a knowledge of the more complex quantitative relations and the means of representing and interpreting them. Language and graphic art are our chief vehicles of thought transference and communication. We are therefore obligated in the senior high school to practice all students in public speaking, written composition, mathematical computation, and graphic arts. Lastly, we should always encourage the attitude of making new and original discoveries in the spirit of research.

III. *Preparation for group life and for citizenship*—We must ever keep our thought on the student citizen who is expected now within his school community and eventually as a man or woman within his neighborhood, city, state, nation, or world to live and move gracefully and helpfully among his fellows.

Every student must learn the trick of it or fail. The world is growing gradually smaller. The free space is used up. The individual going his own gait and leading his own life independently of others has little standing room left. He must find his freedom through the group rather than

independently of it. We must foster for him in form and spirit a natural cooperative school community. The center of responsibility for desirable group action must shift to the students. Their joy is full only when they share in the duties and responsibilities of the place. Teachers must stand aside and learn to do nothing in the conduct of the school routine and of recitation details the doing of which by students gives training in leadership, adds to their delight, gives them a sense of success through purposeful achievement or the heightening of a feeling of ownership in the school through personal service and cordial cooperation in social undertakings. As an illustration of student participation in school situations I mention at this point the range of eighteen distinct home room activities in our own high school, for which in the past year 1239 different student officers and student committeemen were responsible; 792 different students held home room offices; 447 students in addition served on home room committees. Furthermore, in making the school a laboratory of citizenship, curricularized extra-curricular activities can make their chief contribution.

Preparation for group life is, I have said, both immediate and ultimate. Training for the ultimate group life without the school rests on instructional procedure in required citizenship courses and on the interpretation of group life values and their application in concrete situations in the teaching of all subjects either required or elected by students in the curriculums of the school.

In our first effort to realize training for the ultimate group life without the school we require of all students for graduation one year of citizenship. The annual report of the North Central Association for 1925 shows that only 12.2 percent of the students in the 1571 high schools in the membership of that organization were enrolled in citizenship courses as such. How can we justify such procedure in the administration of our high schools as training camps for intelligent participation in the ultimate group life without the school? The chief functions of a required citizenship course are:

1. To offer conceptions of citizenship rights, duties and privileges.
2. To develop a many-sided interest in the welfare of one's immediate community and to promote ideals of social justice.
3. To foster a spirit of intense loyalty to ideals of civic righteousness.
4. To impart a practical knowledge of the function, origin, and development of constructive social agencies and remedial institutions and the necessity of wise leadership in such.
5. To cultivate the exercise of good judgment through reading and study as to what will promote one social end without defeating others.
6. To instill an appreciation of the contributions with which our public utilities, public welfare organizations, and complex governmental agencies regard and seek the common good; thus making for our success and happiness.
7. To promote habits of cordial cooperation and fellowship in socially worthwhile group and community undertakings; and
8. To urge the desirability of yielding gracefully to majority will in law observance and self-control.

Classroom procedure in all subjects is our second effort to practice students now in preparation for ultimate group life. Herein democratic leadership, organization, and administration—cooperative relation of student and teacher, student and student, teacher and teacher are indispensable. Assignment of projects and problems both to individuals and groups of students for socialized and cooperative solution are means of developing both individual responsibility to the group and collective thinking as well.

Contribution to good citizenship should be the dominant aim of the social studies. History should trace the growth of institutions as an expression of men's aspirations for self government. Reverential respect for the heroes of our history, the contributors of our worthiest American ideals should replace the all too frequent current emphasis on remote and non-humanistic governmental functions and unrelated facts.

English teaching should also kindle social ideals and give insight into personal character in relation to social conditions as expressed in the conduct of the great authors and characters of literature rather than to devote itself to irrational subject matter and meticulous analysis.

Science teaching should reveal the interdependence of men and their common dependence on nature, and give appreciation of the constructive inventions and discoveries of man which have liberated him from arduous labor and freed his mind for the development of nature's resources.

IV. *Preparation for a vocation in the group life*—The third life situation for which the senior high school is challenged to make a contribution is preparation for a vocation. Desirable lines of preparation are:

1. To make our contribution in seeing that every student is so trained that he shall be qualified to take his place in the world's work, to share its obligations and its benefits in securing livelihood for himself and those dependent on him;
2. To give a vision both of service and personal satisfaction in the doing of a work which society needs to have done;
3. To implant the idea that society rewards us for our systematic labors both according to the demand for our service and the efficiency with which our work is done;
4. To emphasize the necessity of right relationships towards one's fellow workers and society;
5. To aid students in surveying with discrimination their own capacities and aptitudes in the light of the world's work to be done;
6. It is a serious indictment of our current educational policies if students are allowed to go through high school without the vocational and educational guidance necessary to arrive at a definite notion of their life work; and
7. To give specific vocational training based upon the exploratory vocational experiences of the junior high school, by employing as instructors those proficient in the vocation and utilizing the actual vocational conditions employed in home, shop, factory, farm, and office.

I feel that I cannot define with adequate enthusiasm the necessity of preparation for vocational experience. Our fathers and mothers were willing to make every sacrifice that we might be educated so that from their viewpoint we would not have to work as hard as they had. The

white collar jobs are already overcrowded. During the world war "work or fight" was a hard but holy slogan. "Produce or suffer social disgrace" is a fair motto for peace as well as war.

Many of our compulsory state school attendance laws requiring attendance up to sixteen or even eighteen years of age as in some states, cannot be justified in the light of limited opportunities afforded such students in most school committees. All too frequently regardless of individual differences compulsory attendance drives boys and girls into the high school compelling them to leave a job and a weekly pay check for both of which they have the greatest enthusiasm. The school in turn offers little as an appealing substitute in the way of productive work. Unless we awake to the necessity of closely coordinating and supplementing school procedure in day or night school with the productive vocational activities in our local communities, I think the fruits of compulsory senior high school attendance are doomed in the main to dry rot.

V. *Preparation for worthy use of leisure time*—The measure of the man is not so much the *vigor* with which he recoils from the task as the *direction* of the release. Preparation for leisure should equip the individual to secure from it recreation of body, mind, and spirit, and the enrichment and enlargement of his personality. This objective demands the ability to utilize the common means of enjoyment such as music, art, literature, drama, nature, and social intercourse together with the fostering in each individual of one or more avocational interests. If the student has learned in school to play a musical instrument, to succeed as a dramatist, journalist, essayist, debater, orator, or to create a comely design, enjoy a good book, to judge and execute a work of art even if it be a bit of landscaping, or even to enjoy conversation with a friend so that he springs toward the distinctly ennobling avocations as readily as in the direction of mere play he is on the way toward the worthy use of leisure and the fuller life. Where his heart is there will his treasure be. It is a well-established fact that crimes and misdemeanors in the school and in the state are caused by unused and misdirected energies. Workers in society have more free time at their disposal than ever before. Our students should have training in budgeting their time and in using it profitably and enjoyably.

This objective has had too little of our conscious attention and direction. Literature, art, music, and science have served supposedly for intellectual discipline merely rather than as means of evolving right emotional responses, positive enjoyment and appreciation of nature. We have frequently failed to guide and direct social activities of young people. The school should see that adequate and desirable recreation is provided either within the school or by other agencies in the community. Extra-curricular activities, including school assemblies supported by the various departments of the school, can contribute plays, visual programs, games, contests, carnivals, pageants, parties, concerts, festivals, operas, exhibits, etc.

VI. *Preparation for parenthood, family life, and worthy home membership*—The home is the very heart of humanity. It is the business of the

high school during the period when ideals, duties, and responsibilities are formed to equip each student to become a worthy member of a family deriving benefit from and contributing to its membership. The school activities which should be pointed toward parenthood, family life and worthy home membership are:

1. The home room should serve as a medium for instruction in present home obligations.
2. Social studies should idealize the home as a fundamental social institution.
3. Literature should interpret and idealize the human elements that go to make a home.
4. Music and art should result in more beautiful homes with more joy therein.
5. Science should furnish a background to all students for the biology, physics, and chemistry of the home, and an interpretation of reproductive life functions.
6. Mathematics might well include calculations related to home administration.
7. Home economics should equip all girls through cooking and sewing courses to care for themselves and to promote the welfare of those in their keeping. In Tulsa we require a course in home making of both boys and girls in the junior year in combination with their physical education. The units of the girls' course are:
 - a. Home nursing
 1. first aid
 2. care and feeding and rearing of children
 - b. Home planning, home making
 1. home decoration and furnishing
 - c. Home management

The units of the boys' course are:

- a. nutrition
- b. food preparation
- c. duties of a host
- d. child care
- e. textiles and clothing
- f. interior decoration, home planning, home furnishing
- g. budgets—standards of living
- h. worthy home membership and home appreciation
- i. community interests in which the home inevitably shares

VII. *Preparation for character*—In a democratic society character training becomes paramount among the objectives of the secondary school, and every school policy should be formulated and administered with this objective consciously in mind. Specific avenues for developing character which may be mentioned are:

1. The wise selection of content and methods of instruction in all subjects. The experiences, undertakings, and achievements should
 - a. Be meaningful, significant, and purposeful to students at the time they are engaged in them.
 - b. Be socially valuable—valuable in equipping students for doing successfully and with enthusiasm any legitimate thing which they may undertake at any time.
 - c. Secure thoroughness of mastery and integrity of effort on the part of the student. The "getting by" spirit is a curse on the working morale of our high schools today.
2. The social contacts of students with spiritually minded teachers and with one

another. Before the school turns out a young man with a certificate of character it should know that he is full of chivalry toward women, tender toward children, scornful of sensual suggestions, pure in mind and heart. Vulgarity in speech among boys and girls is like a disease—a breeding sore in society. Boys and girls must see with perfect clearness and with an appeal that vibrates through their whole being, that their future happiness and rational living is in their keeping and is dependent upon their secret thoughts, and upon their wholesome relations with each other.

3. Organization and administration of the school for the development of a sense of personal responsibility and initiative in character promoting activities.
4. Public recognition of loyalty to and leadership in exemplifying high ideals of conduct in the school community embracing honor, moral courage, reverence for beauty and truth. The National High School Honor Society is an illustration of such recognition.
5. Moral codes and moral instruction are essential in giving students standards for interpreting appropriate conduct, but more important still is the directing of opportunities within the whole school procedure for appropriate reaction to, and habituated conduct in the ideals.
6. Above all the vision of ennobling service and the atmosphere of true democracy, honesty, and integrity should permeate the entire school, including superintendent, principal, teachers, and students.

Much subtle character influence is incidental. It is caught rather than taught. We should therefore give as much thought to a teacher's character qualities as we do to college degrees and hours in education.

VIII. *Preparation for individual differences*—The most fundamental contribution of current experimental psychology is the discovery of the individual and the exposure of his mental profile. This new knowledge cuts at the root of one of the most pernicious theories of educational systems, namely, the assumption that where the Great Creator failed to make all human beings equal, it is the business of the school to make them equal. The democratic ideal in education, as everywhere else in life, is not equal distribution to all, but equal opportunity in proportion to capacity. The natural method requires that we shall reach each individual according to his needs and let him grow; otherwise, the school actually succeeds in discouraging initiative, cutting the wings of imagination, lowering ideals of achievement, and recognizing inferior standards so that the superior student comes out from the system with mental habits not much different from the inferior student.

We have the six foot six jumper, the five foot jumper, the four foot jumper, and the three foot jumper. At what height can we hope to set the intellectual bar so as to challenge to the utmost the mental capabilities of the whole group? The answer is obvious. Our attempted solution in Tulsa is an enriched, elastic, differentiated curriculum and a three level homogeneous grouping of classes supplemented by individual classes. But what is more important still, subject matter in nature and amount and methods of instruction are being adapted to the three mental levels and the individual classes, each having in mind the capacity, interests, and needs of the individual student.

Conclusion—Preparation for the realization of the foregoing educational objectives of the senior high school presupposes the junior school. The closest possible supervision, coordination, and articulation of courses within the two organizations is paramount if sequential courses are to obtain in a high school system.

Preparation for educational objectives of the senior high school also presupposes fundamental reorganization within the school itself to admit of dynamic training for all students in the attainment of the foregoing objectives. Tulsa High School has attempted to meet its reorganization needs through the establishment of a six clock-hour period day and a thirty minute home room period providing for an extension of its traditional curriculums and practices through:

1. A required three-year graduated home room course;
2. A required three-year graduated combination course;
3. Amended flexible graduation requirements with a required course for all students;
4. Diversified curricularized extra-curricular activities;
5. The adjustment of subject matter and methods of instruction to the various mental levels of students enrolled in the subjects of the several curriculums; and
6. Larger student loads for teachers in classes on the higher mental levels. By increasing the average class load belongings throughout our system from 22 to 27 we are effecting an annual saving of \$426,000 in teachers' salaries, equipment and buildings.

The clock-hour period makes available all the expensive laboratory equipment in physical education, manual arts, home economics, science, and commerce for six different groups of students daily. Teachers in these departments, our most costly teachers, also carry not less than five different groups of students daily and some six groups. 48 of our 128 teachers handle laboratory and doing assignments. By securing six periods of service from rooms assigned to such work we are able to save 96 room assignments daily. On the basis of 4 group assignments daily as is frequently the practice, we save the equivalent of 24 rooms and their equipment and the salary of 24 teachers annually.

Finally, the administration of all our enriched lines of preparation calls for a distinctly humanistic view, a socialized view, a democratized view, an American vision supported by evaluated conforming practices.

HIGHER EDUCATIONAL AND PROFESSIONAL STANDARDS FOR SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS

J. M. GWINN, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, SAN FRANCISCO

In 1907 the National Education Association Committee of Seventeen on Professional Preparation of High School Teachers in its report recommended "That the minimum requirements for secondary school teachers be graduation from a college maintaining a four-year course and requiring four years' high school work for admission * * * A year of graduate work divided between academic and professional subjects is desirable."

I am of the opinion that should a similar committee on educational and professional standards for senior high school teachers report in 1927, it would not increase the quantitative requirements above those said to be *desirable* in 1907, namely, college graduation and a year of graduate work. The score of years would not have done more than change "desirable" to "necessary" and with some reservations due to the widely varying conditions surrounding high school teaching in the 48 states and in the hundreds of communities within each state. It would I believe have much to recommend toward making the preparation for high school teaching within the five college and university years and the placement of new high school teachers more effective. It would also doubtless have something to say about teachers being certificated to teach only those branches for which they are prepared and about teachers learning on the job and advancing to higher standards after they have finally found their work.

Since the day of the ascendancy of the teacher, when it was proclaimed "As is the teacher, so is the school" all the other elements of education have passed in review on this platform. Each in its turn has made, as it were, its bow before the footlights and answered the curtain calls of its enthusiastic advocates. A galaxy of post headliners in the field of education; retardation and acceleration; floor-space and air-space; fads and fundamentals; 8-4 and 6-3-3; elective boards and appointive boards; pay-as-you-go and bond issues; IQ's and AQ's; tests and time allotments; cabinet officers and curriculum.

Now that we are about to explain "As is the curriculum, so is the school" it seems a bit untimely to bring the teacher to the forefront. Is it an afterthought or a tardy recognition of the star performer? Is this the end of a cycle, with us back where we began with the teacher in the leading role? Well may we question what shall it profit a school if it gets for itself a new curriculum, a new organization, a new building and equipment, a new scientific method of administration and have not a new teacher. It all becomes "as clanging cymbal and sounding brass." We speculate on what will happen when the new curriculum is put into the hands of old teachers.

Shall I say *higher* educational and professional training for high school teachers or *different*? Is the need of senior high school teachers today for more of the kind of education and training they have had or is the need for different kinds?

The application and development in our schools, of the philosophy emphasized more than a quarter of a century ago by John Dewey, that the school is life and the school should be the epitome of life of the community which it serves has moved the school in the quarter century in its lower years markedly towards the home, in its middle years towards the civic life of the community and towards the whole wide world, and in its upper years markedly toward the business, industrial, professional, and other vocational aspects of society which the youth will enter after school is over.

Not alone has the school migrated outward toward all its surroundings whether home or business, but its environing elements have flowed into,

through, and over the school until we can scarcely tell where home leaves off and school begins and where school leaves off and vocation begins. The school house no longer stands stark and uncomfortable and non-conforming in the neighborhood. It fits in, and starting with the homelike furnishings and homelike informal learning and greater freedom of activity in the kindergarten and primary grades, the school merges from this greater home colorings into the markedly business-like equipment and methods of the modern high school. The coming of the business, industrial, and social worlds into the high school has brought matter, methods, and management from these worlds into the school that have created a demand for a new type of teacher which has not arrived in many departments of the senior high school.

Of old we bridged the gaps across the courses from kindergarten to college. More recently we filled the moat which ran around the citadel of education separating and making it a thing apart from all else in life. It may be in some forgotten rooms of the citadel there are to be found some knights in armor in the form of high school teachers who have not heard that the moat is filled and the outer walls are down and that high school education is common and the heritage of all. A suit of armor and a spear ill become a World War warrior. Am I expected to intimate that in this good year of 1926 there are still some high school teachers whose education and training fit them as ill for their work in the new-time high school as armor and spear the soldier on the Marne?

Shall standards be raised? Lest I commit the common error of the youth who begins to figure before he understands the problems, I must pause to note the great number and varieties of standards and conditions now prevailing. The problem of raising standards for high school teachers contains variables and unknown quantities and doubtless with several different values for different communities and conditions.

High school teachers vary greatly in their native abilities and in the degree of their education; they vary in experience from one to fifty years and they vary in the pay they receive from a few hundred dollars to as many thousands a year. High schools vary greatly in size from the one-teacher school in sparsely settled communities to the great city high schools with two hundred fifty or more teachers. High schools vary greatly in their aims from preparation for entrance to academic courses in academic colleges to narrowly specialized vocational pursuits. High school buildings vary in their structure and equipment from ugly, ill-furnished, and uncomfortable rooms to the best that modern ingenuity and unlimited wealth can supply.

In view of all these variable and complex conditions, it is evident there can be no simple yes or no answer to our problem that will be equally valid for all sections of the country.

Data secured in the past month from high school principals, from placement bureaus in connection with training schools for teachers, and from state high school inspectors seem to warrant the conclusion that *different* standards rather than *higher* standards are needed.

Teachers in high schools today do not require more education in their major and minor subjects, the subjects they are preparing to teach, but rather they need to understand the relationship of their subjects to other subjects in the curriculum to the end that they may be able to cooperate with other departments and to correlate their work wholly in the spirit of cooperation and tolerance. High school teachers need to know more about the whole picture of the high school organization and administration so as to be understanding workers in group production and not be merely highly efficient piece workers. The high school teacher needs to know more about the community which the high school serves. Well organized and directed field courses in the study of manufacturing, commercial, distributing, governmental and historical elements of the community might well find their places in the courses offered in the summer and extension departments of universities. Vocational employment of teachers in business or industry may profitably take the place of summer school attendance from time to time. Teachers should make contact more with the out-of-school elements and should not limit their connections to teacher organizations alone.

The high school faculty should be a properly coordinated and subordinated and unified team, and should not be an aggregate of brilliant individual performers. One needs to know what to do when he carries the ball, but he must also know what to do when another member of the team is called. The history teacher, who in his teaching forgets hygiene and health, grammar and language, morals and manners, is a poor teacher indeed. No teacher during any appreciable period teaches just one thing. The studies all hang together. In the training of teachers, that education and training is necessary that will equip the teacher to fit into the faculty as a cooperating member of an organic whole.

High school principals are agreed unanimously in the opinion there should be more education and training in the understanding of young people of the high school ages, their attitudes, desires, their management, and abilities. The high school principals are also agreed there should be more practice teaching and more training in the administrative features of the teacher's work, such as report and program making and routine matters minor in themselves but essential in the management of classes under the regulations in schools and systems of schools.

The data shows also that the effectiveness of high school teachers could be greatly increased by certain changes in administrative matters over which the teacher has no control but which are in the control of principals, superintendents and boards of education.

If one shoots at the wrong mark or misses the mark shot at, it does no good and perhaps does harm to increase the charge of powder. It is evident from the records of election of majors and minors by senior and graduate students preparing to teach, from the records of placement bureaus concerning the placing of new teachers in high school positions, that there is much shooting at the wrong mark and much missing the right mark when shot at in the training and placing of teachers. Before we make a requisition for

longer range guns, we need to develop more skill in locating targets and in range finding.

There is need for relating the supply to the demand. Majors and minors are elected by students preparing to teach, too much on the basis of individual liking of the student or the specialized interest of the professor. Too little account is taken of the state's demand for particular kinds of service. There is an over supply in some subjects and an under supply in others. This conflict between supply and demand varies from section to section of the country. I have not sufficient data to warrant my stating that there is an over supply of any particular class of teachers over the country as a whole. Certification barriers from state to state with family and economic reasons check the free flow of teachers with special qualifications to the point of under supply. The record of the election of majors and minors by students preparing to teach and the orders received for teachers by the placement bureaus of the University of California, Stanford University, and the Universities of Oregon and Washington show that for teachers preparing to teach the social sciences and possibly Latin and mathematics there is an over supply and relatively too few university students preparing to teach commercial branches, manual and household arts, physical education, and music. Despite the fact that in California the standards for certification of high school teachers in the last named subjects is one year lower than for mathematics, Latin and social sciences where the standard is five years college and university education, the supply of college trained teachers of commercial branches, manual and household arts, physical education and music, is below the demand.

There are many contributing causes for this ill adjustment of supply to demand. It is an inviting field for investigation. At this time I can say no more than to recommend a further development of ways and means of supplying students in training for teaching with vocational information and guidance and the organization of curricula in teachers colleges and schools of education so as to give the greatest possible agreement between preparation and teaching position. Recent announcements of these teacher training institutions show that many of them are alive to the situation and are earnestly striving to meet it effectively.

After all has been done that can be done in preparing a teacher for his work in advance of placement, it must be kept in mind that learning on the job is the most effective sort of learning. With university extension courses and summer school courses and leaves of absence for further study available to teachers in service, no ambitious teacher need long continue ill prepared for his work. Insofar as there should be higher standards for senior high school teachers in their teaching subjects, I commend the service of extension, summer school courses, and leaves of absence for study for this purpose to teachers after they have been definitely located in the department to which they will devote their years of teaching.

That teachers should be placed to teach the subject or subjects for which they are prepared all will agree. The facts show that teachers in their first

year are not so placed in almost if not quite 50 percent of the cases. In reports on the placement of teachers made before the state conventions of school superintendents in California last October it was asserted that 48 percent of new teachers placed during the past year in California were assigned to teach subjects for which they were not specially prepared. This was not due to any fault of the placement bureaus nor does it mean that teachers are less effectively assigned in California than elsewhere. I suspect the records from other states might show that an even greater proportion of new teachers hit a mark at which they did not aim and failed to get a shot at the right target.

There are a number of causes contributing to the poor placement of teachers.

The new and inexperienced teacher would have the best chance to succeed if placed in a department of a well equipped, well organized and administered large high school. He has little or no chance of getting such an appointment. The rules of eligibility and the practice of appointment of teachers to such high schools usually require two or more years' teaching experience. To get the required teaching experience as well as to get employment at all, the young teacher is forced to begin in a small high school where he must teach three and sometimes four or five different subjects and under great handicaps as to equipment and discipline. I am of the opinion that the larger city high schools should do their fair part in giving appointment to teachers without teaching experience. A large proportion of the failures among young teachers is due to poor location rather than to lack of adequate education. I agree with Colvin in his statement "If the novice has the good fortune to obtain a position in a well organized and properly controlled school, he should have no serious difficulty in discipline." Discipline has been found to be the leading cause of failures of young teachers.

In the second place the new teacher is always at a disadvantage when adjustments in assignments of work among the teachers of a high school are made. After the new teacher is appointed and has every good reason to believe he is to teach the branches for which he is best prepared he finds on reporting for duty that one of the older teachers wanted a change, the new and inexperienced teacher finds himself, when it is too late to relocate, assigned to teach subjects for which he is not well prepared.

The anxiety of the unemployed young teacher with the burden of debt for the college education pressing upon him causes him to accept employment for which he is ill prepared.

The indefiniteness in the order for a teacher by the board of education and sometimes by a principal or a superintendent causes the wrong recommendations to be sent. To some boards of education a high school teacher is a high school teacher and an order for a high school teacher is sent to the agency or college instead of an order for a teacher with certain special training. Very definite, accurate, and full data should be supplied those who are asked to recommend applicants.

The temporary nature of teaching tenure and of the personnel greatly hamper programs for raising standards of preparation. The rapid growth

of high school enrolment in itself is sufficient cause for greatly increased demands on teachers colleges for more teachers but when this demand is augmented by the demand for replacement of the large number of teachers who drop out of the work each year, the task of supplying properly educated new teachers is much too great to be met by the present number of teacher training institutions so there has been tendency to supply teachers of lower qualifications from other sources. C. J. Anderson in his report on the status of teachers in Wisconsin said:

Some permanency of tenure is essential if a progressive policy in high school instruction is to be realized. How long do the teachers in our high schools remain in the same community? The statistics show them to be an itinerant group, the size of the schools appears to have but little difference to them until they are employed in schools having over ten teachers. In these schools they are content to remain another year.

In two-teacher schools over half of the teachers are new each second year. Only 3.3 percent of them have remained five years or over. None have remained in the same school more than six years. In the schools employing three teachers almost 60 percent of the teachers leave by the end of the second year. Only four teachers have taught in the same school for more than six years. The same story may be told for each group of schools with slight variations here and there. The median for the state is three years, made possible by the greater degree of permanency of positions in schools employing more than ten teachers. The median for those schools employing less than ten teachers is two years.

This is a situation that merits the serious attention of those who plan school policies.

The picture for the whole country would be no better than for Wisconsin. Steps should be taken to retain teachers for longer periods in the same communities. These steps will include modifications in salary schedules so that teachers in small high schools are relatively as well paid as in the larger city schools. It should take a longer period for teachers to reach the maximum salary. As salary schedules are now organized the maximum is reached long before the maximum efficiency of the teacher is reached and the maximum salary is relatively very much too low when compared with the initial salary and with maximum salaries in most other professions. The salary increases should extend perhaps to the twentieth or twenty-fifth year and should reach a level almost 100 percent above the present maximum.

There is a compensating relationship existing among the factors determining proper standards of qualifications of high school teachers so that it is impossible to change one of them without producing correlative changes in others or in the resultant of them all. I cannot say that I would favor higher educational and professional standards for high school teachers and leave all the other elements unchanged. Such a change would doubtless do more harm than good. In the period 1918 to 1921 the purchasing power of the salaries of high school teachers actually decreased with a resultant decrease of 9 percent in the proportion of college graduates who were high school teachers and an increase of 17 percent in the proportion of normal school graduates who were high school teachers. If lowering the salaries decreases the proportion of college graduates it would seem reasonable to

expect a like effect if standards are raised without a corresponding increase in the pay. There are, of course, individual cases, individual communities and possibly individual states where standards might be raised without a corresponding increase in the rate of pay but, in the long run, in the purchasing of teaching service, as in other things, you get what you pay for. If society wants better qualified teachers, society will have to pay more either through an actual increase in the pay or in increasing the purchasing power of present salaries. Just as soon as the levels of educational standards for teachers are forced much above the corresponding levels of rewards for the service, the very teachers who should be retained in the service are drained off into the other vocations.

In seeking an answer to the problem of higher educational and professional standards for senior high school teachers we have found that if the standard set by the committee of seventeen in 1907 with a required year of graduate work is accepted as the present standard that this standard is high enough for beginning teachers under the present conditions of tenure and pay. Under conditions prevailing, the young teacher may well postpone a further extension of the study of his major and minor subjects until such time as he has definitely located in a department and then such advance study should be provided through extension and summer school courses and leaves of absence for university study. The service of high school teachers may be made more effective through education and training that will enable the teacher to adjust properly to the whole high school program, to the other departments in the high school and especially to the life of the community which the high school serves. We have found that the education should be different rather than more extended and that administrative influence should better relate major and minor election of teachers in training to the state's needs for particular kinds of service and place new teachers where they can serve more effectively by teaching one or two subjects for which they are prepared and under conditions favorable to success.

THE PRINCIPAL AS A SUPERVISOR OF CLASSROOM TEACHING

CHARLES H. JUDD, DIRECTOR, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO, CHICAGO, ILL.

I am very much impressed to hear the remarks from the speaker who immediately preceded me, and my paper is an effort to present a formula for the correction of the difficulties which he pointed out, which formula is somewhat different from the one that he recommended. It is my judgment that the supervision of teachers in the high school will have to furnish the solution for these difficulties, and I proceed immediately to a discussion of the general topic of supervision in its relation to the work of the principal, but with a view to solving exactly the difficulties that Mr. Gwinn pointed out so vividly, and I have ventured to commence my discussion by a reference to three groups of teachers who may, for all purposes, be divided, in the relation of the general matter of supervision, as negative, three negative groups; or, if you like to put it in another way, three groups not adequately supervised.

In the first place, I find that there is a group of teachers, both in the elementary and the high schools, who resent supervision. They have, in the name of democracy, made the claim that supervision is unnecessary, expensive, a luxury that they can dispense with, and that the school ought not to indulge in it. I am not going to attempt at this time to comment on the fact except to say that in my judgment these teachers who resent supervision fail utterly to understand its purposes. In some instances they have organized themselves as labor unions and have provided in their constitutions that their supervisors shall not attend their gatherings. When that step is taken I repeat it is my judgment that they have mistaken absolutely the purposes and ends of supervision.

There is a second group of teachers in whom we are, I think, somewhat more interested. This group of teachers does not expect supervision, and the traditions of the schools have exempted them in very large measure from supervision. I speak of my colleagues in the colleges and universities. They do not expect supervision.

If you will allow me a personal experience, I attended a state teachers association two weeks ago, and I had an invitation from the college section to take part in the program that was one of the adjuncts of the main program. I consented without specifying the subject, and when I got there I found that my subject was "Supervision of college teaching." Some humorist had chosen that topic for me to discuss. Supervision of college teaching, I repeat, is not expected, and again I find, as I go into the high schools, that supervision is not expected on the part of those teachers who are specialists in their fields. The physics teacher would resent the arrival in his classroom of anyone who thought he could supervise the teaching of physics but who was wholly untrained in the natural sciences.

I have been very much interested to consider the history of education as

an explanation of this situation. There was a time in the medieval world when supervision of teaching was attempted by those who were interested in politics and religion, and at that time there was established a great principle in the medieval universities, which we know as the principle of freedom to teach and freedom to learn, and when the medieval universities arrived at the point where they had decided that instructors shall not be limited in what they teach, if they teach the truth, a principle was laid down which has been carried forward into our modern school organization. Specialists do not expect to be supervised, and if we introduce supervision at these levels where specialists serve us, we shall have to introduce a type of supervision which can justify itself in the presence of the established rule of freedom to teach the truth without interference.

There is a third group of teachers not supervised, and I am rather disposed to think that if we had statistical material with which to define this group we should find that it is a fairly large group. It is that group of teachers who are not supervised, because their supervisors are busy with something besides supervision. There are a great many teachers in our high schools who are hardly acquainted with the principal outside of his office. There are some teachers who would be so surprised and shocked at the appearance of a superintendent in the classroom that they would probably suspend operations, and the pupils would agree with them that this phenomenon ought to be carefully observed and looked into, and certainly not passed over casually.

Why is there such a lack of supervision? I think the explanation is not really to be found in the statement that these supervisors are busy, because anyone who has the freedom of a high school principal in determining his duties is likely to select those duties that, to his mind, are of greatest importance, and as we find that high school principals devote their attention in the main to administrative duties rather than to supervision, this must mean that supervision is not esteemed as highly as we ought, I think, to esteem it.

I find the explanation of the fact that many superintendents and principals do relatively little supervising—I say, I find the explanation in the fact that there is an underlying assumption in our educational world, accepted by the people at large and accepted in too high degree by the members of the teaching profession, it is the assumption that a teacher can be prepared for the business of teaching and then can be released upon the world with no probability of further change during the life career of that individual. There was a time when graduation from normal school and the securing of a certificate was regarded as perfectly clear evidence that for the rest of that individual's life, teaching should go on without interruption or modification, and I think that assumption has not entirely died out. I think it is the assumption of many of these high school principals that the specialists who come into their faculties are competent to go forward with the teaching of such classes as are to be assigned to them, without supervision. Now, my contention is, in the first place, that that is a false assumption, and I am pre-

pared to defend the contention that it is a false assumption that the novice is a competent teacher, on several grounds.

In the first place, our academic institutions are not set up, under ordinary circumstances, for the business of training teachers. The only standard requirement for a high school teacher that is universally accepted in this country is graduation from a higher institution. There are coming to be added by our standardizing institutions and by our state departments certain secondary requirements of professional training, but the fact is that we are not prepared in the United States to do that amount of professional training that would be required if every novice coming into the high school faculty could be relied upon to be prepared for the art that he or she is undertaking.

No nation in the world has ever tried the experiment of raising all its people to the level of a free secondary education, and if you contemplate the numbers that are demanding to supply our teaching staffs in the secondary schools of the United States you will find that it is a staggering number of personnel. You will find that it is almost impossible to conceive in one generation of the number of the physicists, teachers of mathematics, mathematicians, chemists, teachers of English, those who shall be expert and sufficiently competent to guide the younger generation in the secondary level—I repeat it is almost impossible to think of one generation affording that number of people, and if these young people could be furnished in sufficient number, adequately trained in a knowledge of the subject-matter that they are to teach, there still remains the technique of arranging that subject-matter in such fashion that it can be appropriately given to secondary school students.

I know of no more significant discovery in the field of job analysis and teaching than the fact that the analysis of the job, information about the job, does not qualify one to seek that job, because there must be a second analysis which is an analysis of that subject from the point of view of the learner who is to take on the training necessary to equip him for the execution of that job. And our teachers who go into the secondary schools must not only know the subjects that they teach, but they must know how to arrange these subjects; they must know how to put these subjects forward in order that the young people in the secondary schools may be able to follow their teachings. And again I repeat, if these young people were sufficient in number, if they were trained in the subjects that they are to teach, if they know something of the technique that they are to employ, there will remain the fact that in every one of the secondary school subjects the world is moving forward at such a pace that we must see to it that training, initial training, is not relied upon to prepare the teacher for all of his career. If that teacher is to be a genuine teacher there must be an impulse within the school organization supplied to him every day for a further study, for a further examination of the most recent results in his field.

I mention these considerations because I feel very clear that we must understand that teachers go into the secondary schools only partially pre-

pared for their work. Now, how shall we prepare them? Shall we let them go away to summer school? Shall we give them leaves of absence? Please do not misunderstand me. I am heartily in sympathy with any form of procedure that will increase the opportunities for advanced study on the part of these secondary school teachers, but my contention is that that is not an adequate provision, and I come to the main thesis of my paper, which is that the secondary schools themselves must set up an organization that shall train the teachers to be employed in these institutions.

Industry learned long ago that industry cannot depend upon any outside sources for the supply of its workers. Industry has learned that whatever general training may be given in the schools, whatever general equipment may be brought by the workers to their tasks, it is the business of industry, for its own sake, to see that the equipment of the workers is so clearly and definitely understood, and so clearly and definitely transmitted to the novice that there shall be no mistake about the fitting of that novice into the industry, and it is my contention, as to the preliminaries, that may clear the problem—it is my contention that every teacher who comes into the school ought to find an organization ready to receive him, or to receive her, ready to take advantage of all of the training that can be given by the institution from which that teacher comes, but there ought also to be such organization within the secondary school as to assure a training of that teacher.

I believe the time has come when the high schools have got to recognize the fact that with the expansion of our institutions of learning, there must be very great attention given to this problem of equipping the teachers in service. Now, that involves, with all clearness, two adjustments. That involves an adjustment on the one side of the budget of the secondary schools. I believe we have to go to the American people with a statement that if these schools are to attain the highest perfection, they must be equipped with internal machinery for the solution of their own problems. I find boards of education entirely willing to throw the responsibility for the training of their teachers on outside institutions, institutions maintained by the state, institutions maintained by private endowment, and it is very seldom that a board of education recognizes in adequate degree the fact that if that board of education is to have adequate service from a high school teacher, it must contribute to the training of that teacher. I find many boards of education who are very chary in their willingness to give anything like adequate support to what industry knows as the "overhead." Adequate support for supervision of teachers is so seldom provided in our schools that I feel clear we must make a demand upon the public for better equipment of the internal machinery of our secondary schools in order that there may be adequate training of the teachers in service.

I say the budget considerations have got to be taken up, but I say with equal emphasis that in my judgment it will be a mistake to begin by trying to get an addition to the budget. Very frequently the logic of a situation—and I think it is the logic of this situation that we ought to have more financial equipment—very often the logic of the situation does not represent

the proper course of procedure. The proper course of procedure in this case, in my judgment, is the establishment of practices within the secondary school that shall first demonstrate the importance and the service that can be rendered if the budget is increased.

And so I turn directly to the comment that I should like to make, which is that I believe secondary school principals have got for the time being to repair that defect in our secondary school organization which has been conditional. We have neglected adequate supervision. We have concerned ourselves with other activities that seemed to us more urgent, if not more important, and before we come to the people with a request that they give us the necessary equipment to repair this damage, I think we must undertake ourselves to meet the situation. And so I have one or two concrete recommendations that I should like to offer you.

I think that many a high school principal has got to convert himself and his community by some perfectly definite line of procedure that will throw the emphasis upon this training of teachers. I know the attitude of the public towards the high school principal. I know that any citizen who wants to consult a high school principal expects to find him on the other end of the telephone. I know that some citizens come to consult you on matters that seem to them to be of great importance, but which from the community point of view must be described at least as less significant than the training of teachers. And so I have a suggestion to make, a suggestion which I think can be made very concrete and quite definite. I suggest that you undertake a little legitimate publicity, and that legitimate publicity I suggest take the form of a notice on your door, on the door to your private office, if you have one, on the door to your general office, if that is where you carry on, on the front door of the building, if necessary, but let us have the notice put up saying: "Mr. So and So, the principal of this school, is visiting classes and can be found in case of emergency—can be found between 2 and 2:30 in room No. so and so; between 2:30 and 3 in room No. so and so." Now, I say I am suggesting this first of all by way of publicity. I think if your patrons came to the school and found that you were engaged in that sort of that thing, a few of them at any rate would turn away and contemplate somewhat more seriously the messages that they intended to bring to you. And on the whole, that would be a very great advance because if they thought over the matter for a day at any rate, perhaps they would not come back again, and that would be a double advantage. Now, I say that degree of publicity would indicate to the people, your patrons, what you are doing. I have suggested this over the heads of the patrons because, to tell you the frank truth, in my judgment the great advantage of such a notice as that posted in the morning would be that you would have to go in the afternoon, and a program that you have laid out in that fashion quite definitely for yourself would not suffer the same interruption if it were publicly posted, that it is likely to suffer if you have it merely in your mind. I find that these programs which we arrange in our minds are subject to change somewhat too readily, but a posted program would be helpful to the patrons; I think

it would be helpful to the school, because it would be exceedingly helpful to the principal himself. And I have watched with great interest what might be called "The personal history," the intellectual history of some high school principals. I see them go into high school positions with the loftiest motives of supervision of their teachers; I see them in the course of time grow gradually discouraged because of the necessity of nursing the community, and I find them gradually getting into a state of mind that is one of indecision as to where they should be at the next moment, a kind of vibratory intellectualism that comes into the high school principal's office and ought, if possible, in some fashion to be modified in the interest of the institution that we serve.

I have sometimes thought that perhaps some good citizen might advantageously organize an association for the prevention of degeneration in the intellectual interests of the high school principal.

Now, I say that in my judgment these people ought to go to the classrooms, and I hasten to make the remark that when they get to the classrooms, I certainly do not want them to proceed as we sometimes think of a supervisor proceeding when he gets into the classroom. I have not located him in the classroom, in my thinking, at all for the purpose of trying to make that teacher into a miniature example of his own virtues. It seems to me that one of the great defects of supervision in times past has been that the supervisor has regarded it as his major duty to see that the teacher conforms to some fundamental principle of teaching or some favorite mode of procedure that the principal knows about. I want the principal to go to that classroom as a humble student of education. If you will go into one of these classrooms where some specialist does not want to be supervised, not for the purpose of supervising him but for the purpose of finding out how he does the excellent work which you know him to do, you will find that you are a welcome instead of an unwelcome visitor. You may have to go six or seven times for the purpose of finding out his virtues before you will venture to comment on the other side of the matter, but if you can be there six or seven times as a welcome visitor you will at least have the opportunity in the course of a year to make some casual remark just as you leave the room that may be helpful to further improve the situation that you find in that room. I say one ought to go as a student of education, and I mean strictly that. I think if our principals could make themselves into centers of selection of valuable methods they could create for us a literature that never could be created in any other fashion.

I am perfectly certain too that if, when you come to deal with a young and inexperienced teacher, if instead of saying, "I used to do thus and so"—and I know of no phrase more likely to alienate a young teacher than that, "I used to do thus and so"—if you will say, on the other hand, "I have seen some of the best teachers and they do thus and so; I have seen teachers who did this and this and this, and they found it ineffective"—in other words, if you can make your supervision just as impersonal as your other descriptions of social and educational matters, you can bring to these teachers an entirely

new view of the educational situation. You can make them understand and realize that supervision is not the imposition of personal traits and personal views. You can show them that supervision is for the purpose of promoting education, and if the principal goes to these classes with this in mind he will find something by way of information with regard to the value of the curriculum, for he will see the curriculum in actual operation.

Anyone who has tried to study a curriculum of American schools as he finds it in a printed abstract, or as he finds it in textbooks, begins to realize immediately that he is not in contact with the real curriculum, and when I see school principals, leaders in their profession, occasionally trying to cope with some of the modern problems without those data that are necessary to understand exactly how these processes are going on in the classroom, I feel perfectly clear that these principals have deprived themselves by absence from the real laboratory where the curriculum is being worked out, of the types of information necessary for educational reforms.

If you want to know the personnel of your school, if you want to know the young people in a natural way, get sufficiently familiar with them in their classrooms so that you see how they react to the curriculum. If you want to see that curriculum in operation, watch it as the teacher tries to administer it. If you want to understand the personnel of your faculty, go and sympathetically try to study with them the problems that they encounter. The principal in the high school has a function in modern secondary education which has not been wholly fulfilled in the past. It is the business of those who are in charge of our great secondary schools to see that they become efficient social machines. The teachers who come into those schools cannot be trained in our colleges. It is an absolute impossibility, and certainly no one more than I has regard for the efforts made by our colleges to prepare teachers; no one more than I can have regard for the duty that we try to perform in our colleges of education when we try to equip these teachers. We can start them on the right way, but it is quite impossible for us to turn out experts. Those experts can be turned out only through direct contact with the work of the secondary schools, and they must be surrounded by influences that will make them critical, that will make them optimistic, and at the same time make them exceedingly earnest in trying to solve the problems of these schools, and the burden must rest upon the secondary school itself for the training of its own teachers. In no other way can the great democratic problem of supplying teachers for our secondary schools be solved, and I repeat that we need in these institutions leaders, men and women who shall see those problems, who shall see those problems at the point where they exist in the classroom, where the personnel and where the curriculum unite in the effort to give America a secondary education, and the principal who sees the possibility of his position, the principal who sees the obligation of his position, will, I am sure, find a way ultimately of converting his public through publicity, through reports to his superintendents and boards—I say he will find a way of convincing his public that his major function is not to carry on petty, trivial administrative details; it is his business to supervise instruction.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

February 21

The fifty-sixth annual meeting of the Department of Superintendence opened Sunday afternoon, February 21, 1926, at 2:30 o'clock with a patriotic pilgrimage to Arlington National Cemetery, where a wreath was placed on the tomb of the Unknown Soldier. The opening vesper service was held at 4 o'clock in Memorial Continental Hall. All other general sessions of the Department were held in the Washington Auditorium.

February 22

After the Convention had been called to order Monday morning, Randall J. Condon, superintendent of schools, Cincinnati, Ohio, presented a gavel to President Frank W. Ballou. The president announced the appointment of the Committee on Resolutions and of the Board of Tellers and stated that the Resolutions Committee would meet at 4 o'clock in Committee Room "A," and that the Board of Tellers would meet at 4:30 o'clock in Committee Room "B," Washington Auditorium. He stated that the general topic of the convention was *Reorganization of our Administrative Units*.

February 23

At the business session on Tuesday morning an Hawaiian lei was presented to each member as he entered the Auditorium. Will C. Crawford, superintendent of public instruction of the Territory of Hawaii was introduced and made the following statement:

The wreath about your neck is an Hawaiian lei. With this lei the Hawaiians have, since early days, expressed their aloha to visitors and friends. It is a very genuine gesture of friendliness and conveys both a kindly greeting and a parting wish for true happiness. The yellow color is an imitation of the Ilima leis which were worn by the Hawaiian royalty. These leis have been made for you by the school children of Hawaii, and the name and address of the child is on the paper tag. A note from you will be appreciated by the donor. The Territory of Hawaii stands as the far western outpost of American civilization. The teachers of Hawaii are working with you on the great common task of training loyal, happy, and useful citizens of this great Republic.

During the intermission following the community singing, copies of the journal of the Columbian Education Association of Washington, D. C., were distributed to members. Frank D. Boynton, superintendent of schools, Ithaca, New York, made the following presentation announcement:

Dr. Ballou, the great body of your fellow citizens who yet are working upwards with humility under depressing handicaps, represented by the negro teachers under your charge, in appreciation of your fair, wise, and just administration, and as a practical demonstration of the highest feeling for you, as their superintendent,

and as president of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, present to you, through the Columbian Educational Association, a copy of its journal. The Association is also presenting a copy with its compliments to each member of this body. The purpose of the distribution of this journal is modestly to plead the cause of interest in negro education in every section of the country.

George D. Strayer, chairman of the Legislative Commission of the National Education Association, was introduced, and with the approval of the Committee on Resolutions, submitted for immediate action the resolution endorsing the Education Bill, which was unanimously adopted. The full text of this resolution appears in its proper place in the Report of the Committee on Resolutions.

Edwin C. Broome, chairman of the Commission on the Curriculum, at the conclusion of his report offered the following resolution:

That the Commission on the Curriculum be continued and that the Executive Committee be authorized to make such changes in the personnel of the Commission as it may deem wise.

M. G. Clark, superintendent of schools, Sioux City, Iowa, speaking in behalf of the Executive Committee of the Department of Superintendence, moved that the resolution be adopted. This motion was seconded and carried unanimously.

Frank D. Boynton, superintendent of schools, Ithaca, New York, reporting for the Executive Committee, recommended that Article 3 of the by-laws be amended to read as follows:

The dues of this Department shall be \$5 per year for both active and associate members, and shall be paid annually to the Executive Secretary. In lieu of said annual dues, a six-year membership shall be issued by the Executive Secretary to any active or associate member upon the payment of \$25 in advance.

Under the by-laws this amendment went over for action at a future session of the Department.

Thomas E. Finegan, representing the National Commission on Economy and Efficiency in the Business Administration of School Systems, reported the method of organization and tentative plans of procedure. On motion the program as outlined was approved.

Nominations for officers were made as follows: For president, J. M. Gwinn, superintendent of schools, San Francisco, Calif.; Edwin C. Broome, superintendent of schools, Philadelphia, Pa.; E. E. Oberholtzer, superintendent of schools, Houston, Tex.; C. B. Glenn, superintendent of schools, Birmingham, Ala.; E. E. Lewis, superintendent of schools, Flint, Mich.; and Randall J. Condon, superintendent of schools, Cincinnati, Ohio. For second vice-president, David A. Ward, superintendent of schools, Wilmington, Del. For member of the Executive Committee for four years, E. E. Lewis, superintendent of schools, Flint, Mich., and Willis A. Sutton, superintendent of schools, Atlanta, Ga. Mr. Gwinn and Mr. Lewis asked

that their names be withdrawn as candidates for president, and it was so ordered.

February 24

The tellers presented their report of the election which was as follows:

Washington, D. C., February 24, 1926.

To Dr. Frank W. Ballou, President of the Department of Superintendence, National Education Association.

We hereby certify that the election of officers for the Department of Superintendence held this day was conducted in accordance with the Constitution and by-laws and that the following persons were elected to the offices named:

President: Randall J. Condon, superintendent of schools, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Second Vice-president: David A. Ward, superintendent of schools, Wilmington, Delaware.

Member of Executive Committee for four years: E. E. Lewis, superintendent of schools, Flint, Michigan.

Respectfully submitted,

FRANK W. WRIGHT, *Chairman*

A. A. McDONALD

FRANK G. PICKELL

JOHN O. CHEWNING

JOHN FRANKLIN WEST

FRANK M. MARTIN

SEXTON JOHNSON

February 25

At the morning session, President Ballou introduced Superintendent Randall J. Condon, the newly elected president, who spoke in part as follows:

Members of the Department of Superintendence: With very deep appreciation, I accept the office to which you have chosen me by your votes. I have been content to serve in the ranks and would still prefer that position, but in response to your mandate, I accept for the ensuing year the leadership of this great Department.

As I think of the men and women assembled here from all parts of our great nation and think of the responsibility and the opportunity that comes to help give direction and force to your wishes and your united purposes, I have a feeling both of satisfaction and of purpose to do that which you desire.

Sometimes as we listen to the children in the school reciting that pledge to the flag and closing with the sentiment "One nation indivisible, with liberty and justice for all," there comes over me a new conception of what it means, to so train these children of today that the nation of the future shall be secure because it is not divided in any direction. I suppose the first thought we have goes back to the days of civil strife, but I think a newer and a better meaning is this: that the children pledge allegiance to the flag, that in the years to come our nation shall not be divided, according to section or creed or color or wealth or labor, according to agriculture or manufacture or industry. The only thing that shall make our nation secure in the future is a unity of purpose, and this great Department of Superintendence working with the National Education Association, should so direct the work of the schools that our nation shall be secure in the future, because there is one common purpose of justice and liberty for all.

I greet you this morning, and in the name of our future country and all that it means, I pledge to you in the year to come the best service that it is possible for me to give.

At the afternoon session, Payson Smith, state commissioner of education, Boston, Massachusetts, as chairman, presented the report of the Committee on Resolutions. The report was unanimously adopted. The final business meeting then adjourned.

RESOLUTIONS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

Unanimously adopted February 25, 1926

RESOLUTIONS COMMITTEE

PAYSON SMITH, Chairman, State Commissioner of Education.....	Boston, Mass.
NICHOLAS BAUER, Superintendent of Schools.....	New Orleans, La.
HECTOR L. BELISLE, Superintendent of Schools.....	Fall River, Mass.
WILLIAM J. BICKETT, Superintendent of Schools.....	Trenton, N. J.
GEORGE N. CHILD, Superintendent of Schools.....	Salt Lake City, Utah
HARRIS HART, State Superintendent of Public Instruction.....	Richmond, Va.
HENRY W. HOLMES, Dean, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University	Cambridge, Mass.
HILDA HUGHES, County Superintendent of Schools.....	LaGrange, Ind.
BELLE M. RYAN, Assistant Superintendent of Schools.....	Omaha, Nebr.
LESLIE B. SIPPLE, Department of Rural Education, Northern Normal and Industrial School	Aberdeen, S. Dak.
A. J. SROUT, Superintendent of Schools.....	Topeka, Kans.
JOHN W. WITHERS, Dean, School of Education, New York University.....	New York City

1. Assembled in the capital of the nation, surrounded by the symbols of our government, reminded through an eventful week of the rich traditions of American history, heartened by the manifold evidence that foretell a national future worthy of our national past, the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association here gives its renewed pledge that the American public school shall serve worthily the highest and best interests of our republic.

2. We express to President Calvin Coolidge our profound appreciation of the great honor of his presence in our convention. We owe to him our gratitude for his scholarly address upon the life, character, and services of George Washington. This address adds a brilliant and permanent page to the records dealing with the first president. Education is indebted to our President for the analysis he has made of the contributions of Washington to the establishment of American institutions of learning and to the confident belief which he himself expresses in the power of education to improve civilization.

3. To the citizens, officials, and teachers of Washington, to the officers of the Department of Superintendence, to the many individuals and organizations that have cooperated to make this convention successful, we would accord our thanks. To the high school cadets whose courteous attention has increased the pleasure and convenience of our members we would give a special word of commendation.

4. It is gratifying to note that through acts of Congress, with the cooperation of the Bureau of the Budget, the District Commissioners, the citizens and teachers of Washington, the public schools of this city are coming so rapidly to a position that promises educational leadership. We

are confident that the work thus begun will go forward to the end and that here may finally be found a model system of education worthy the emulation of every American city. We are happy to observe that the wise directing mind and the skilful administrative hand in this undertaking are those of our colleague, President Frank W. Ballou.

5. The American public school is the bulwark of our civil and religious liberties. The moral responsibility for the encouragement and advancement of this basic institution rests upon the federal government. As President Coolidge said in his address before the National Education Association on July 4, 1924, "For a long time the cause of education has been regarded as so important and so preeminently an American cause, that the national government has sought to encourage it, scientifically to investigate its needs, and to furnish information and advice for its constant advancement."

We heartily indorse the Education Bill now before Congress (S. 291 and H. R. 5000). This bill does not permit of any interference with the complete autonomy of the states in the administration and control of their schools, but it does provide for the more efficient participation of the federal government by coordinating its present educational activities and by extending the scope of its scientific investigations. This bill further provides by its creation of a Department of Education with a Secretary in the President's Cabinet for the recognition and service which the importance of public education merits and the advancement of education requires.

We, therefore, urge upon the committees to which this bill has been referred that they report it for the consideration of the representatives of the people. We also respectfully urge that members of Congress consider this bill in terms of its provisions for meeting the nation's most fundamental need.

6. The Department of Superintendence affirms its position on the subject of Child Labor and urges the speedy passage of such federal and state legislation, constitutional and statutory, as will prevent the exploitation and will promote the welfare of the children of America.

7. We rejoice in the progress that has already been made toward the elimination of illiteracy, and we recognize the need of a continuance of these efforts with increasing zeal until they have culminated in ultimate success, and the nation is free from illiteracy. We, therefore, urge that all patriotic citizens and every agency for the public good shall join with the teachers of America in putting into the movement for the elimination of illiteracy such driving power as will render it irresistible and will guarantee to every illiterate a speedy opportunity.

8. The settled policy of the federal government to foster education by granting to the several states large tracts of land to be used in support of their common and public schools is a wise and beneficent one. However, certain practices and rulings in recent years have so clouded and impaired the States' title to such land that it is impossible to realize the

purposes intended. Therefore, we favor such legislation by the Congress of the United States as will clear the title to the lands granted to the states for the benefit of their common and public schools and will make it possible for the states to enjoy the benefits and to realize the purposes intended for the promotion of education and for the safety of the republic.

9. Recognizing that the rural school situation presents a most acute current educational problem, we earnestly recommend that every available means be used to improve its conditions. We especially recommend the provision of adequate supervision by professionally trained persons and a standard of salaries in rural schools such as will attract and hold teachers of special training for rural work and qualifications equivalent to those of teachers in other schools.

10. Believing that there is some opinion in the membership of the Association that it might be desirable to change the date of the meeting of the Department of Superintendence, we suggest that the Executive Committee make a careful study of the question to determine whether or not the time now fixed in the constitution is most favorable for the membership in large.

11. Recognizing that health and physical education are essential to the well-rounded education of the child, we urge the cooperation of all agencies in a balanced program of such activities as will lend themselves to this objective.

12. In an age more complex and intricate than any other the world has ever known, in a country of unparalleled prosperity, the problem of personal adjustment to social, civic, and economic environment is not easy. To a generation of youth facing such complexity the difficulty is great indeed. It is a tribute to young America that in making this adjustment so many succeed and so few fail. We bear our tribute to the essential cleanness, the intellectual straightness, the frank courage, and the decent idealism of American young manhood and young womanhood. The greatest obligation we, an adult generation, owe is the obligation we owe to them. In developing those characteristics of personality and citizenship which we desire for our civilization, such as obedience to law, respect for government, and tolerance, all American adults will serve youth best by themselves setting those examples which they desire youth to follow.

13. The guiding of the inquiring mind of youth is a responsibility not to be lightly undertaken. Knowing that each generation must be mindful of the lessons to be learned from the studies and experiences of former generations, we rely confidently, in any conflict between truth and error, upon that Divine wisdom, that has endowed the human brain with the power to think and to reason. Only that education can be free which provides under conditions appropriate to the age of the student complete liberty to seek the answer to any honest question. We would respectfully remind our fellow citizens that while legislation seeking to control the subject-matter of the curriculum may impede educational progress, it

has not the power to alter, modify, or set aside any immutable law of nature, of science, or of God.

14. The Department of Superintendence would express warm appreciation of the great and important service rendered by the Division of Research and by the committees and other agencies that have cooperated with it in the publication of the yearbooks on the curriculum and the various research bulletins dealing with pressing problems of school finance and administration. These publications mark the beginning of a new epoch in the development of American education; they place at the immediate command of school superintendents the results of research and of nation-wide experience on critical problems of school administration. They are proving to be of great value in the stimulation and guidance of professional interest and improvement among teachers and school officials and they are demonstrating clearly the possibility and effectiveness of cooperative effort throughout the nation in the improvement of public education.

We therefore strongly recommend: (1) That the principle of co-operating study and research be continued and its application extended to include not only school systems and agencies within the Department but also other agencies and organizations engaged in the study of similar problems; (2) that so far as practicable the work of these agencies be assisted and coordinated by the Division of Research; (3) that research be extended to include not only current matters of importance in school administration but also the definition and study of problems of education whose adequate solution must extend in many cases over a period of years; and, (4) that the Division of Research be organized and adequately staffed and financially supported for the larger service and responsibility which the adoption of the foregoing policy would place upon it.

American Association of Teachers Colleges

A DEPARTMENT OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

THE DEPARTMENT OF TEACHERS COLLEGES takes the place of the Department of Normal Schools, which was formed at the Cleveland meeting, August 19, 1870, by a reorganization of the American Normal School Association, which had been organized in 1858. See *Proceedings*, 1870: 176; *Proceedings*, 1906: 524. In 1924 it was voted to appoint a committee to discuss the possibility of combining with the American Association of Teachers Colleges. See *Proceedings*, 1924: 614. In 1925 the combination was effected. See *Proceedings*, 1925, Report of Committee on Revision of Departments. It was arranged that the National Education Association would take over the publications formerly issued by the American Association of Teachers Colleges, including its yearbook, in 1926. The officers of the Department of Teachers Colleges for the year 1926-27 are: *President*, H. C. Minnich, Oxford, Ohio; *First Vicepresident*, George H. Black, Ellensburg, Wash.; *Second Vicepresident*, C. E. Evans, San Marcos, Texas; *Third Vicepresident*, Wallace Mason, Keene, N. H.; *Secretary-Treasurer*, W. P. Morgan, Macomb, Ill. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1870: 1-88	1885: 223-248	1896: 642-666	1906: 707-711	1916: 441-461
1873: 164-199	1886: 389-423	1897: 709-736	1907: 739-759	1917: 383-417
1874: 214-254	1887: 467-604	1898: 728-757	1908: 703-739	1918: 209-235
1875: 138-153	1888: 465-515	1899: 835-904	1909: 547-597	1919: 221-259
1876: 157-211	1889: 557-613	1900: 480-491	1910: 563-595	1920: 237-263
1877: 139-174	1890: 717-759	1901: 635-646	1911: 695-709	1921: 515
1879: 113-135	1891: 709-741	1902: 529-549	1912: 809-897	1922: 1063-1085
1880: 176-193	1892: 407-435	1903: 539-595	1913: 523-553	1923: 737-744
1881: 199-218	1894: 819-871	1904: 567-593	1914: 497-565	1924: 613-637
1882: 173-181	1895: 672-718	1905: 517-557	1915: 763-815	1925: 863
1884: 236-258				

STANDARDS FOR ACCREDITING TEACHERS COLLEGES

ADOPTED AT WASHINGTON, D. C., FEBRUARY 20, 1926

I. Definition of a Teachers College

A. A TEACHERS COLLEGE, within the meaning of these standards, is a state, municipal or incorporated private institution, or an independent unit of a recognized college or university, which has at least one four-year unified curriculum; which is devoted exclusively to the preparation of teachers; which has legal authority to grant a standard bachelor's degree; which has granted and continues to grant such degree; and which requires for admission the completion of a standard four-year secondary school curriculum, or equivalent training approved by this Association.

B. A similar institution devoted exclusively to the preparation of teachers, which requires for admission the completion of a standard four-year secondary school curriculum, or equivalent training approved by this Association; which has a curriculum less than four years in length and does not have legal authority to grant a standard bachelor's degree; or which has a curriculum four years in length but has not granted and does not grant a bachelor's degree, shall be designated as a normal school or a junior teachers college.

C. Normal schools and junior teachers colleges shall conform to the same standards as teachers colleges except as hereinafter specifically indicated.

II. Requirements for Admission

A. The quantitative requirement for admission to a teachers college accredited by this Association shall be at least fifteen units of secondary school work, or the equivalent. These units must represent work done in a secondary school approved by the state department of public instruction of the state in which the college is located, must conform to the definitions of the various units as recommended by the state department of public instruction, or must be evidenced by the result of examinations.

Experienced teachers over twenty-one years of age may be admitted to a teachers college for such work as they are qualified to take, but before receiving a diploma or a degree, they shall meet the full entrance requirement.

If the state department of public instruction maintains no accredited list of secondary schools or publishes no definitions of secondary school units, those of a regularly recognized accrediting agency shall be used.

B. Equivalence for entrance units of secondary school work shall be determined only by regularly scheduled written examinations, which shall be of such a chapter as to satisfy the committee on admissions of the

college that the applicant is fully prepared to do college work as herein-after defined.

C. Experience in teaching shall in no case be accepted for entrance, or credit toward graduation, except supervised student teaching in the training school.

III. Standards for Graduation

A. The quantitative requirement for graduation shall be the completion of at least one hundred twenty semester hours of credit, or the equivalent in term hours, quarter hours, points, majors, or courses.

B. The requirement for graduation for a normal school or junior teachers college with a two-year curriculum shall be at least sixty semester hours or the equivalent; and for a normal school or junior teachers college with a three-year curriculum, at least ninety semester hours or the equivalent.

IV. Size of Faculty

A. There shall be a reasonable ratio of students to faculty in the college department, which shall be subjected to investigation to determine the proper ratio.

B. In the training school there shall be at least one training-school teacher for every eighteen college students, each of whom does ninety clock hours of student teaching.

V. Preparation of Faculty

A. The minimum scholastic requirement for teachers in the training school shall be graduation from a college of recognized standing, presumably evidenced by possession of a bachelor's degree, or equivalent training. Six years after the date on which these standards take effect, the minimum scholastic requirement for all new training-school teachers shall be the same as for teachers in the college department.

Teachers who have been members of the faculty of the training school for not less than five years, and whose training is not equivalent to this requirement, may be considered to have equivalent training for six years after the date on which these standards take effect, provided that the president of the college submits a statement of their training and experience and files with the committee on accrediting and classification a declaration that such members of the faculty are rendering service in their own teaching and in the supervision of student teaching which is of a superior quality as judged by the standards of the best public-school systems in the state in which the college is located.

During this period of six years this declaration must be made annually and shall be based upon actual inspection of the teacher's work.

B. The minimum scholastic requirement for members of the faculty who give instruction in the college department shall be graduation from a college of recognized standing and additional training, which shall include at least one year of study in their respective fields of teaching in

a recognized graduate school, or equivalent, and presumably possession of the master's degree. Members of the faculty who have served in their respective positions for not less than five years, and who do not meet this requirement, may be regarded as having done so for six years after the date on which these standards take effect, provided that the president of the college submits a statement of their training and experience and files a declaration that such members of the faculty are giving satisfactory instruction of college grade.

During this period of six years this declaration must be made annually until each such member of the faculty has secured the required training, and shall be based upon actual inspection of the work of such members of the faculty.

C. It is desirable that members of the faculty of the college should possess training of a distinctly professional quality, which represents at least three years of study beyond the bachelor's degree, in a recognized graduate school, or corresponding professional or technological training. The effort of a college to maintain a faculty of higher scholarly equipment than is required by the minimum standard shall be held to constitute a strong presumption that superior work is being done. The proportion of members of the faculty which should be on the different levels of training above the first degree shall be subjected to immediate investigation.

VI. Teaching Load of Faculty

The following teaching loads shall be the maximum for a teachers college faculty: Sixteen clock hours per week, or the equivalent. Equivalence shall be based upon the ratio of one class period to one and one half class periods in shop and laboratory work, one to one and one quarter in physical education, and one to three fourths in English composition.

VII. Training School and Student Teaching

A. Each teachers college shall maintain a training school under its own control as a part of its organization, as a laboratory school, for purposes of observation, demonstration, and supervised teaching on the part of students. The use of an urban or rural school system, under sufficient control and supervision of the college to permit carrying out the educational policy of the college to a sufficient degree for the conduct of effective student teaching, will satisfy this requirement.

B. Student teaching shall be so organized as to lead to a proper initial mastery of the technic of teaching and, at the same time, protect the interests of the children in the training school.

C. Each teacher in the training school, who is also responsible for a regular amount of supervision of student teaching, shall be required to have charge of not more than forty children at any one time.

D. The minimum amount of student teaching required of every graduate of a teachers college shall be ninety hours of supervised teaching.

E. For every eighteen college students to be given ninety hours of student teaching, there shall be a minimum group of thirty children, either in the campus training school or in affiliated urban or rural schools under the supervision of the college.

F. No training-school teacher shall supervise, in a year, the entire student teaching of more than eighteen college students, each of whom does ninety hours of student teaching, or an equivalent number of student teachers.

G. In the case of use of affiliated urban or rural schools for student-teaching purposes, when the degree of affiliation and control is restricted to such an extent that a teaching force of more limited training than is contemplated by these standards must be used, and which is not capable of effective supervision of student teaching, or which by the terms of the affiliation is not expected to do supervision of student teaching, there shall be one full-time supervisor of student teaching for every fifty student teachers, each of whom does ninety hours of student teaching. Such supervisors must possess the scholastic qualifications required of members of the faculty of the college department.

H. It is recommended that at least two fifths of the teaching in the training school should be done by regular teachers of the training school or by other members of the faculty.

VIII. Organization of the Curriculum

A. The curriculum of the college must recognize definite requirements as regards sequences of courses. Senior college courses must not be open to freshmen who have not taken the prerequisites for these courses. Programs consisting mainly of freshmen and sophomore courses carrying full credit, shall not be available for students in the junior and senior years. Coherent and progressive lines of study, leading to specific achievement within definite fields, must be a characteristic of the college curriculum.

Each teachers college must, therefore, adopt an organization of its curricula which will provide in the junior and senior years a sufficient number of advanced courses which require elementary courses as prerequisites, so that at least one half of the work of a student in the junior and senior years shall consist of advanced courses open only to juniors and seniors.

B. In a normal school or junior teachers college with a three-year curriculum, one half of the work of students in the last year shall consist of advanced courses to which freshmen are not admitted.

IX. Library, Laboratory, and Shop Equipment

A. Each teachers college shall have a live, well-distributed, and professionally administered library bearing specifically upon the subjects taught. At least fifteen thousand volumes, exclusive of public documents, are recommended as a minimum.

B. Each college with less than five hundred students should have a

definite annual appropriation for the purchase of new reference books and current periodicals, amounting to at least \$2500. Colleges with five hundred to one thousand students should have a definite annual appropriation amounting to at least five dollars per student registered. Colleges with larger enrolments should have an amount equal to at least four dollars per student. The foregoing is to be regarded as a recommendation rather than a requirement.

C. Each college shall be provided with laboratory equipment sufficient for instructional purposes for each course offered.

D. Each college must be provided with suitable shops and shop equipment for instructional purposes for each course offered, including gymnasiums for physical education; commercial equipment for courses in commerce; suitable kitchens, dining-rooms and laboratories for household arts; and adequate farm buildings and demonstration farms for work in agriculture.

X. Location, Construction, and Sanitary Condition of Buildings

The location and construction of buildings, the lighting, heating, and ventilation of the rooms, the nature of the lavatories, corridors, closets, water supply, school furniture, apparatus, and method of cleaning, shall be such as to insure hygienic conditions for students and teachers.

XI. Limits of Registration of Students

A. No teachers college shall be placed on the accredited list, or continued on such list for more than one year, unless it has a regular registration of at least two hundred students of college grade.

B. A notably small proportion of students of college grade registered in the third and fourth years, continued over a period of several years, shall constitute ground for dropping a teachers college from the accredited list. Fifteen percent of the enrolment of a teachers college should be in the junior and senior years.

C. A normal school or junior teachers college with a two-year curriculum must have an enrolment of at least sixty students of college grade, one third of whom must be in the second year.

XII. Financial Support

A. Each state or municipal teachers college must have an annual appropriation sufficient to provide: a faculty of the size, quality, and attainments hereinbefore prescribed; the required library, laboratory, and shop equipment with proper repairs and replacements; sufficient supplies and material in all departments for educational and instructional purposes; repairs and replacements in the physical plant adequate to maintain the plant in good working condition; and suitable staffs, supplies, and material for the effective operation of the physical plant. A marked inferiority or insufficiency in material resources shall be accepted as strong presumption of unsatisfactory educational conditions.

B. If the college is a private incorporated institution, it must have a minimum annual income of \$50,000 for its teachers college program, one half of which shall be from sources other than payments by students; and an additional annual income of \$10,000 for each one hundred students above two hundred, one half of which shall be from sources other than payments by students. If such college is not tax-supported, it shall possess a productive endowment of \$500,000, and an additional endowment of \$50,000 for each additional one hundred students above two hundred.

XIII. General Requirements

A. The character of the curriculum, the efficiency of the instruction, the scholarly spirit, and the professional atmosphere of the institution, the standard for granting degrees, and the general tone of the college shall be factors in determining eligibility or accrediting.

B. No teachers college shall maintain a secondary school, or a department in which strictly secondary-school academic work is offered as a part of its college organization, except for training-school purposes.

XIV. Classification of Colleges

A. Any teachers college which completely meets these requirements shall be designated as a Class A college, provided that during the first five years of the operation of these standards, a college may fail to meet the requirements of three of these standards and nevertheless be given the rating of a Class A college. (Any sub-division of a numbered section indicated by a letter shall be regarded as a standard, except where it is a recommendation only.)

B. Any teachers college which fails to conform to one or more of these standards shall be designated as a Class B college, provided that during the first five years of the operation of these standards, a college may fail to meet the requirements of five of these standards and nevertheless be given the rating of a Class B college.

C. Any teachers college which fails to conform to Standards VA, VB, VIA, VIIA, VIIC, VIID, VIIIE, VIIF, VIIG and VIIIA shall be designated as a Class C college.

XV. Accrediting and Classification of Teachers Colleges

A. For the purpose of administering these standards, a committee of five members, known as the committee on accrediting and classification, is hereby created, one member of which shall be elected annually by the Association for a term of five years. (In 1926 five members shall be elected for terms of one, two, three, four, and five years respectively.)

B. The secretary of the association, or the executive secretary, whenever authorized and appointed by the association, shall be the secretary and the executive officer of the committee on accrediting and classification.

C. Each teachers college accredited under these standards shall file annually with the committee on accrediting and classification a report on a blank provided for that purpose by the committee.

D. These standards shall go into effect on September 1, 1927. Not later than the date of the annual meeting of the association in 1928, the committee on accrediting and classification shall prepare an accredited and classified list of teachers colleges on the basis of information contained in the reports submitted to the committee by the colleges.

E. The committee on accrediting and classification may inspect or cause to be inspected any teachers college when it deems such inspection necessary.

F. The committee on standards and surveys shall have power to appoint any commissions for investigation of any problems concerning standards which it deems necessary and desirable.

Annual Meeting

The American Association of Teachers Colleges, consisting of 152 members, held its annual meeting in Washington, D. C., February 19 and 20, with headquarters at the Washington Hotel. President Robert H. Wright presided. Seventy-five members answered to the roll call at the opening meeting at two P.M., Friday, February 19.

Transactions

The following teacher training institutions were admitted to membership, Class D:

1. East Tennessee State Teachers College, Johnson City, Tennessee—Charles C. Sherrod, President.

2. Appalachian State Normal School, Boone, North Carolina—B. B. Daugherty, President.

Two sets of standards were sent to the members by mail prior to the date of the meetings, one by the committee on standards and surveys and the other by the president of the association on his own initiative.

Moved by H. C. Minnich that these two sets of standards be referred to the committee on standards and surveys at consideration, to be reported back to the association before the close of the annual meeting. Motion carried.

Moved by Principal J. A. Pitman that Article III, Section I of the constitution, relative to classification of the membership of the association be amended so as to read under the following heads:

Class A—Institutions that are granting degrees based upon the completion of four years of approved college work, under standard authority.

Class B—Institutions that offer curricula of approved college grade of at least two years in length, but that do not confer degrees. Motion was referred to the executive committee.

A petition from the "Supervisors of Student Teaching" to become a

section of the American Association of Teachers Colleges was presented through the secretary of that body, E. I. F. Williams, of Heidelberg University, Tiffin, Ohio. It was moved that this petition be referred to the executive committee with power. Motion carried.

Moved by President Charles McKenney that a joint meeting between the State Superintendents' section of the National Education Association and the section of the American Association of Teachers Colleges be held Saturday evening, February 19. Motion carried.

Moved by President Ray that the American Association of Teachers Colleges indorse Senate Bill 291, now before Congress, and House Bill 5000, to establish a Department of Education in the government of the United States, with a Secretary in the President's Cabinet. Motion carried unanimously.

The regular program was then taken up. The addresses which were given are printed in this volume.

President H. A. Brown presented his report on standards for membership in the association in the afternoon session on Saturday. President Frasier moved that the association adopt the report as presented. President Felmley of Illinois University moved that the report be amended to require that all who enter teachers colleges who cannot present fifteen entrance units must be at least 21 years of age. This motion prevailed.

The auditing committee, consisting of J. W. Carr, of Murray, Kentucky; George Martin, of Kearney, Nebraska, and George Shaffer, of Willimantic, Connecticut, reported the books of the secretary-treasurer to be correct and their report was approved.

The committee on nominations, consisting of D. B. Waldo, of Kalamazoo, Michigan; Thomas W. Butcher, of Emporia, Kansas, and Henry J. Willingham, of Florence, Alabama, presented the following nominations for the officers for the coming year:

For President—

H. C. Minnich, Oxford, Ohio.

For Vice-President—

(1) George H. Black, Ellensburg, Washington.

(2) C. E. Evans, San Marcos, Texas.

(3) Wallace Mason, Keene, New Hampshire.

For Secretary-Treasurer—

W. P. Morgan, Macomb, Illinois.

Delegate to American Council on Education—

H. A. Brown, Oshkosh, Wisconsin.

Member of Committee on Standards and Surveys, for three years—

Clyde M. Hill, Springfield, Missouri.

Member of the Board of Directors of American Council for the Social Studies—

H. B. Williams, Bowling Green, Ohio.

Committee on Accrediting and Classification of Teachers Colleges—

For 1 year—Charles McKenny, Ypsilanti, Michigan.

For 2 years—J. C. Brown, St. Cloud, Minnesota.

For 3 years—E. M. Shackelford, Troy, Alabama.

For 4 years—Thomas Butcher, Emporia, Kansas.

For 5 years—H. W. Rockwell, Buffalo, New York.

The report was unanimously approved.

*THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS FOR TEACHERS
COLLEGES AND NORMAL SCHOOLS*

D. B. WALDO, PRESIDENT, WESTERN STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, KALAMAZOO
MICHIGAN

The topic assigned by our president sets up the major of major problems. The curricula, the teacher's load, the student's load are outstanding in importance, but above these looms the question of instructional staff. The teaching staff may be a dull, mediocre, opportunity-wasting group or it may be a faculty that teaches with skill and many red letter days, that organizes, leads, and inspires students to a maximum of effective effort and attainment. A faculty properly trained, rightly selected and balanced, well organized, and under skilful leadership will solve satisfactorily a large majority of problems, simple and complex, as they arise.

Committee on Standards and Surveys

No scientific investigation, comprehensive and satisfactory, has yet told us what constitutes adequate preparation for the teaching staff. Our committee on standards and surveys might set up an organization of special committees that shall attack various items of the problem in detail. Such special committees, if appointed, may properly include in their personnel (1) representatives from the membership of this body, presidents of teachers colleges and normal schools; (2) skilful and sagacious classroom teachers from our own institutions, and (3) others trained in modern methods of research and analysis to be selected from a group of experts of proven ability serving in the education departments of universities, colleges, or teachers colleges. Our committee on standards and surveys may wisely give this matter of preparation of members of the instructional staff immediate consideration. Under the leadership of our general committee special carefully selected subcommittees representing the organization might return preliminary, tentative reports by 1927.

The above suggested investigation to be most effective and of greatest value must come from committees that have permanence and are engaged in continuous research. Standards are not fixed. They are subject to constant change, and permanence of high type investigation seems essential. Standards are desirable and necessary, but rigid standardization is to be shunned. We need from year to year new ideals. General standards of perfection must be rising, not stationary. They should be so drawn, more-

over, as not to involve unfair distinctions within the ranks of any given institution or as between different institutions that are making an honest and intelligent effort to attain a maximum of excellence. To set up now an arbitrary set of standards to go into effect in one or two or three years may in many instances injure rather than benefit. The motive underlying the setting of standards should be that of "lend a hand," rather than attach stigma to institutions whose temporary status is unfortunate and unfair. It should be the policy of this organization to cooperate with and seek the cooperation of all institutions of a kind other than our own whose aim is the betterment of the public school.

The committee on standards and surveys might determine general standards of personal quality, teaching skill, professional ethics, and leadership. Special committees including in their membership representative teachers in normal schools and teachers colleges of recognized ability, teaching skill and success, seem indispensable in determining standards of preparation for instructors in special subjects of the curriculum.

It is easy to suggest scholarship standards based on "my observation," "my experience," "my opinion." Some observation, some experience, some opinion has high value, but in general, standards for the preparation of teachers based on such suggestions are entitled to scant recognition. So far in the onward march of normal schools and teachers colleges, a considerable part of our so-called standards has been made up "by guess and by gosh." Somebody from his experience and observation thought, or thought he thought, that thirty is the ideal maximum number of students for a classroom. First he guessed it, then he asserted it, then a group of his fellows followed his lead like a flock of ewes following a bellwether. Somebody has said that 8000 volumes shall be a minimum for a college library. Is it? Why make it 8000 rather than 6000, 10,000 or 15,000? Somebody guesses that an instructor in composition or rhetoric cannot efficiently handle more than three sections of thirty students each. Who knows? Do eighteen hours of gymnasium work constitute a maximum load in a teachers college? Similarly with respect to the preparation of teachers. Percentages of A. B., A. M., and Ph. D. holders are easily struck off but, to carry weight, such data must reflect modern scientific method, comprehensive research, careful analysis, and sound reasoning. The somewhat loosely accepted and controlling standards in teachers colleges have changed greatly for the better during the past decade. There is good reason to expect corresponding improvement in the next ten years. Definitely suggested standards above the uncertain basis on which we now operate would help. In a teachers college staff of one hundred members, what should be the minimum of preparation? What maximum percentage of the staff with minimum preparation should be required? If carefully selected committees on the basis of comprehensive research shall suggest definite factors of teacher preparation, this should greatly improve our status by 1936.

The Training School Staff

The writer is willing to venture out into no man's land and hazard an opinion which is set forth only as an opinion and not as something demonstrated. The training school staff should be on essentially the same basis as other instructors in a normal school or teachers college. The training school in theory has always been a heart throb center in normal schools. Twenty-five years ago the training school was everywhere loudly extolled by presidents of state normal schools. The entire institution revolved around the little child and the critic was his dear teacher. In many schools, however, this was a matter of sentimentality unaccompanied by tangible evidence of sound thinking or fair play. The critic teacher was shamefully underpaid. At the beginning of the present century his salary in the middle west commonly ranged from \$700 to \$1000. He was almost invariably provided with an unbelievable overload of work. Too often he was of relatively little professional or academic training, and outside of an over portion of work and some gushy compliments, he was given scant recognition as a potential leader in the school he was serving. He was, nevertheless, a pioneer and in spite of tremendous obstacles, he played his full part as an educational hero.

In recent years a marked change for the better has come. In various sorts of laboratory schools, demonstration, participation, training, experimental, the teachers are now better paid. The teaching load has been lightened. In many schools he is given full recognition in important committee assignments, and during the past decade he ordinarily comes to his teaching opportunity with improved academic and professional training.

There is still room for improvement. The academic and professional preparation of the training school teacher should equal that of teachers of academic subjects in normal schools and teachers college. Minimum academic preparation should consist of four years of carefully selected work beyond graduation from an approved high school. An appreciable percentage should hold the master's degree representing from one to two years of graduate work. If the training school teacher comes with the doctorate or equivalent preparation, this should not bar him from good standing. There can be no reasonable objection to a fair percentage of demonstration, critic, and experimental teachers whose graduate work equals that of departmental teachers in English, social science, mathematics, and the like.

The training school teacher should have a background of successful experience and to this must be added the ability to analyze what is done in the classroom and why. He should have rare ability to work easily and masterfully both with children and with students of the undergraduate type. His undergraduate and graduate work should involve more training in the principles of teaching than is ordinarily required of the grade teacher. A well organized course in supervision as applied to critic teaching problems is highly desirable. His preparation should involve much visitation

of good schools other than training schools with an opportunity for evaluation of what has been seen by suggestions for improvements. Opportunity for group and individual conferences with students in training should be provided, and wherever possible, practice work in demonstration or critic teaching is highly desirable.

Supply and Demand

Since 1919 rapid expansion has taken place in the student enrolment of normal schools and teachers colleges. This has meant a corresponding increase in the number of instructors needed. The positions to be filled are many. The supply of worthy candidates is smaller than the demand. Many are called, or call themselves, but not all may be chosen. The president of a teachers college who seeks to properly staff the institution with which he is connected is confronted with real obstacles and many a pitfall. Well-meaning university heads are sometimes woefully weak in ability to estimate good teaching material. They give many a misleading appraisal. Too frequently the prize candidate is lacking in initiative, in social background, in personal quality, in capacity for growth.

The meagerness of appropriations for teacher training institutions in many of our states gravely complicates the situation and frequently presents to the skilled administrator difficulties almost insuperable. The sources of supply have been limited and before the problem is solved these sources must be increased and extended. Too frequently undue reliance is seemingly forced on the graduates of one's own institution. This tendency unless checked or corrected, leads to the weaknesses of inbreeding.

Relatively few of our higher institutions have made any attempt to train instructors for efficient service in teachers colleges. So much has the field been neglected that the few institutions that have made a contribution merit a special word of appreciation. From an early period under the administration of Dean J. E. Russell, Teachers College, Columbia University, has pioneered in the training of the instructional staff for normal schools and teachers colleges. More and better work is being done in the institution now than ever before. A letter from E. S. Evenden, under date of January 26, 1926, says:

"As you know, we try to treat all of our students at teachers college as individuals, and adapt the work to their needs as far as possible. These needs are usually expressed in terms of certain omissions in their training up to the present time, or as felt needs for work to be done in a new position which has either been obtained or which is aspired to by the student. We have been criticised for taking as much time as we do for registration, but it is done in order to make possible this individual program.

"Under Professor Bagley's leadership this department has always stressed the need for additional work in the subject-matter fields for teachers in normal schools and teachers colleges. When we know that a student expects to teach English in a normal school, we encourage the student to

carry as much additional work in English as possible. It is sometimes difficult to persuade students that this material is the most valuable that they can obtain, since they have decided on certain courses in education as desirable. You will be interested to know that it is becoming increasingly easy to persuade these teachers that they should take additional work in history or geography or arithmetic, not to mention the field of English, sociology, science, and the like, instead of more 'education'."

The school of education of the University of Chicago has done some effective work in the middle west. This institution recommends definite courses to teachers of education and directors of training schools in normal schools as follows: "The duties and the courses which prepare for them are (1) teaching courses in education, namely, (a) introduction to education, 301 and 346; (b) elementary school methods, 368; (c) observation and technique, 366; (d) child development, 353; (e) psychology of elementary education, 354; (f) school tests, 363 and 364A; (g) experimental education, 306; (2) general supervision in the training school, 332 and 340; (3) organizing normal school activities, 375; (4) supervising special subjects in the training school, 389 to 396 inclusive."

For the south, George Peabody College is making a notable contribution. Twenty-five percent of the graduates of Peabody College in recent years have gone to normal schools and teachers colleges. A recent announcement states, "Peabody College will strive to influence the whole body of southern teachers by its work in training normal school teachers, who will send out the teachers of the elementary schools: by training teachers who will supervise or train teachers or teach in elementary schools, high schools, and colleges; by training experts, who will constantly study the practical management of schools and school system in order to secure more practical values for the millions of southern school children, our citizens of tomorrow; by training experts who can assist all agencies for promoting scientific farming and special features for country boys and girls; by training similar experts to assist in public health campaigns for the prevention of disease and the promotion of universal good health among our people, the old as well as the young."

On the Pacific Coast, Stanford University is making a contribution. Under date of February 8, 1926, Lewis M. Terman writes as follows:

"I have your letter of February the 3rd in regard to what special considerations are given at Stanford to students preparing for positions in teachers colleges. I cannot say that we have adopted this problem particularly as ours, but it happens that the large majority of our Ph. D. graduates during the last ten years are holding positions in teachers colleges, or departments of education in universities. I think the work of Professor Cubberly has been partly responsible, together with the course work and research work done here in the field of mental tests and educational measurements. Our departments of education and psychology together have been graduating about a half dozen a year for the Ph. D. for several

years past. For one thing we emphasize teamwork between these two departments."

Many of the state universities are beginning to show definite interest in the problem discussed in this paper. It seems probable that during the coming decade an important source of well trained candidates will be found in our state universities.

Under the efficient leadership of Dean Withers, New York University proposes now to engage heartily in the selection of student material and the preparation of instructors for teachers colleges and normal schools. He summarizes the plan tentatively adopted at New York University as follows:

1. Provision for three-year graduate curricula leading to the Ph. D. degree.
2. The fundamental spirit and purpose of these curricula to be the preparation of men and women to become teachers in colleges, universities, and professional schools.
3. Careful selection on a basis of scholarship and personal fitness of the students who are to be admitted to these curricula.
4. The thesis required for the Doctor's Degree to be in some field of college and university or professional education with the intention that the studies made shall contribute to the improvement of teaching and administration in higher education.
5. The course requirements for the degree to include three types of work which are to proceed simultaneously throughout the three-year period as follows:
 - (a) Apprenticeship under guidance and supervision. This apprenticeship to include both teaching and personal work. The amount of teaching required to be increased through the three-year period, being least in the first year and most in the third. Personnel work to include student advising and cooperation of students in such activities as athletics, dramatics, publicity work, etc.
 - (b) Courses in subject-matter designed to give the student a comprehensive and thorough knowledge of the subject or subjects which he intends to teach, culminating in an intensive study of some division or aspect of the subject. Scholarship to be emphasized as a basic need in college teaching with the understanding, however, that it must be a type of scholarship that is alive, growing and contagious, that keeps the prospective teacher in intellectual sympathy with the undeveloped minds of his college students, conscious both of their past experiences and future needs and finally that comprehends the subject taught in its relation to life and its value as an instrument of preparation of the college student for the role which, as a graduate, he should play.
 - (c) Professional courses in educational theory and practice: These courses to include, in addition to such basic subjects as Educational Psychology, Educational Sociology, Philosophy or Principles of Education, etc., a study of the most effective methods of teaching the student's chosen subject and also a study of the organization and administration of higher education and its function in American life.
 - (d) Thesis subject to be selected and work on it begun as early as practicable.
 - (e) Approximately the course requirements for two or three years of graduate work to be devoted to subject-matter courses and one year to the apprenticeship and professional courses.

Increasing the Supply

An opportunity heretofore unimproved presents itself to the entire group of teacher training institutions. If these schools will direct a percentage of the honor student enrolment toward graduate schools that assure specialization in the preparation of instructors for teachers colleges, the effect for good will be incalculable. No one would suggest that all candidates for such positions should have their preliminary training in the teachers college, but if a fair percentage have had such training, the cause of scientific education will be advanced. A number of other factors will stimulate the supply of good human material. (1) We must have steadily improving standards. (2) These standards must have the sanction that comes from approval by properly constituted committees or authorities whose position is such that their endorsement gives weight. (3) We must have more wholesome publicity about the public school—what it is and does—what it represents in the upbuilding and permanency of a democracy, and the opportunity for a great life work, career, that is offered to the teachers of teachers. (4) We must provide adequate compensation in our teachers colleges. The salary range must be sufficient to attract a fair percentage of the ablest young men and young women in the land. (5) There must be adequate opportunities for the thorough training of those who plan to enter the higher ranks of the teaching profession.

Some Suggested Principles Determining Staff Selection

Aside from any future scientific contribution that may be made by our committee on standards and surveys, the writer ventures to offer a few general suggestions. Here again we enter the field of opinion, of judgment, of ability to estimate. This is a field, however, that we cannot justifiably neglect. Washington was not versed in the modern scientific method—neither was Lincoln. Each was a judge of men and of measures. Alexander Hamilton, John Marshall, and Daniel Webster, working in the field of judgment, each made a contribution to what we call the Constitution of the Union.

Among the principles that may be wisely applied in the selection of a teachers college staff are the following:

A. Juniority or youth. Several decades ago a very competent college administrator, Charles Eliot, President, of Harvard University, suggested juniority in the composition of a college faculty. President DeWitt Hyde, of Bowdoin College, emphasized the same suggestion a quarter of a century ago. The average age of teachers in any given institution increases a year annually. The only way to avoid eventual approach toward senility is to pick a considerable majority of new candidates for teaching positions in the twenties or early thirties. The exuberance and inexperience of youth seems less risky than hardening of the arteries.

Variety of Training and Experience

B. At the beginning of the present century President Hyde pointed out the desirability of variety of training and experience in the personnel of a college faculty. We may profit by the application of this principle in organizing the staff of a teachers college. In a group of fifty instructors the presence of two or three men or women of successful business experience will work to the advantage of the institution. A small group whose interest is primarily in research will affect favorably the tone of the school and make for scholarship. The influence of another group who represent in a high degree the real, though somewhat intangible thing, called culture, will permeate the entire body and raise the general social standard. The great majority, of course, should be teachers of rare power. Love of teaching and the ability to teach should be dominant factors.

Going back of degrees, going back of the content of curriculum followed in securing the degree, is the personal quality of the candidate. Is his I. Q. high? Has he an earned reputation for sincerity? Does he have physical and mental power and endurance? Is he alert? Is he sympathetic? Has he a winning personality? Does he possess the qualities of leadership, breadth, outlook, vision, courage, industry, capacity to serve? Is he capable of depth and breadth of scholarship? Are his views and tastes marked by catholicity? Has he ability to think far in a straight line—to think a thing through? Can he bound it east and west and north and south as Lincoln loved to do?

C. Travel. Other things being equal, the teacher who has seen much of our own country and something of the round earth outside the United States is worth more to a teachers college than the one who is untraveled. The latter is more likely to be provincial, to lack in breadth; his background is insufficient. One of the writer's colleagues is emphatic in the conviction that travel is an essential to the teacher of English just as scholarship represented by the academic degree is essential. This colleague states that "no teacher of American literature will teach the same after spending some time in and around Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Charleston, New Orleans, Wisconsin, Colorado, and California, as before, for his literature has become vital. To have spent some time in England's Lake District; in the Hardy country; in the Shakespeare country; in London, with its famous British Museum, its numerous art and literary interests; in Oxford, with its Bodleian Library; in Cambridge; in Italy; in Switzerland; and in other haunts of English writers should make English literature of the various periods so vital to the teacher that the student in turn cannot fail to become interested."

D. Growth and leadership. In no small degree the preparation of the instructional staff of a teachers college goes on from year to year while the instructors are in service. Relief from unnecessary detail and undue extra-curricular activities, easy accessibility of adequate library and laboratory facilities, practical recognition and appreciation in the school of

discernible achievement in teaching service, and in essential cooperative activities outside the classroom, all tend to promote growth and teaching efficiency. The sabbatical, with part or entire compensation, will help. Of immeasurable importance is the presence of a few outstanding leaders. They may or may not be heads or chairmen of departments. The quality of leadership is usually tied up with scholarship, but not always does the degree signify this quality. The North Central Association has suggested that all heads of departments shall hold the degree of doctor of philosophy or its equivalent. In practical application this suggestion seems unwise even to those of us who seek for a high percentage of scholarship in the teaching staff as represented by degrees. Scholarship and degrees alone do not cover the case. Leadership in part is a matter of vision, of character, of courage, of honesty, of industry. Some excellent teachers are not especially gifted with the qualities of leadership.

The degree of Ph. D. usually connotes scholarship and frequently leadership. But not always. A recognized scholar, Charles Mills Gayley, of the University of California, in his essay, "Idols," says: "Illiteracy is not a hallmark exclusively reserved to the student body. Our Ph. D.'s are lamentably prone to error in the use of their own tongue. Of the later crop of instructors in universities, some say 'he don't,' 'hospitable,' 'lucrative,' 'exquisite,' 'minerology'—confessing that 'they hadn't ought to'; others never fail, they 'fall down'; they never win, they 'win out'; they are never at a loss, though they are frequently 'up against it.' When they lecture in plain clothes, the outcome is a discourse; when in a dinner jacket, an address. Recently, a specialist, already teaching in an Eastern college, was highly recommended for an instructorship in a Western university by the authorities of the Eastern university where he had published an ostensibly learned thesis and secured his degree of Doctor of Philosophy. In writing he 'referred' to a previous letter, and in conversation suggested that we 'leave things go as they are.' We did. To rehearse such amenities would be invidious, were they not of everyday occurrence, and the offenders dulled by custom and congenial apathy."

THE CONTENT AND METHOD OF SUBJECT-MATTER COURSES IN TEACHERS COLLEGES

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This paper is not what it started out to be. When I began to collect material toward presenting what constitutes, or what ought to constitute, subject-matter in a content course offered in a teachers college, I thought that I had only to query a sufficient number of instructors who give history, mathematics, English, etc., in teachers colleges and then tabulate and study the conceptions of the work that they gave me. I intended to write a report. Instead, I am here offering a very general discussion; possibly it may constitute a prophecy; perhaps it might be called a philosophy re-

garding subject-matter and the handling of subject-matter in high-grade, altogether professional teacher-training institutions; for the report, which I aspired to write, proved impossible of formulation. In short, I have been unable to learn that, in the present state of development of teacher training, instructors of subject-matter courses have arrived at any consensus of opinion regarding their work.

In only one thing, so far as I have definitely learned, are instructors altogether in agreement; and that is in the assertion that their courses are in essence different from the corresponding courses given, often with the same titles, in the purely academic colleges. The statement is, however, largely in the realm of assertion, not that of demonstrated fact. So far as I have been able to reach in my inquiries, teachers-college faculties are not able to analyze specifically what they really do or think they do.

An institution which cannot fully define itself is not likely to continue long to receive public support. The first conclusion of my paper is, therefore, a challenge—a challenge to teachers colleges to study themselves and to the American Association of Teachers Colleges to provide both the stimulus and the means of approach to a thorough-going investigation of what really constitutes the work of a teacher-training school, both actually and ideally, as opposed to every other type of educational institution.

There is in America a long-established tradition of educating for a liberal culture. The American college has now for about three hundred years steered its course by the pole-star of this goal of general culture, the production of manliness and womanliness as the *sine qua non*, of course not prohibiting, but in virtue far exceeding, mere industrial or professional efficiency. And during its some three hundred years of development the academic college has come to understand itself pretty thoroughly and to standardize its organization, including the content and method of its courses.

Sharply opposed to this ideal and organization aiming chiefly at a general culture is a job-analysis conception of education, which puts as its main endeavor the instilling of practical efficiency—industrial or professional, as the case may be—and subordinates to an incidental place whatever it may inculcate of general, rounded-out culture. Before the Great War we heard much, in this country, of the marvelous efficiency of education in Germany—its capacity to put a boy into industry or, maybe, into a Ph. D., with a saving of three or four years of time over our American methods. This system was chiefly a job-analysis procedure, with a rigid confining of each individual student within the straight and narrow path laid down inflexibly for his development. In a way it worked. During the war we borrowed it ourselves in order to turn out automobile mechanics and even subordinate officers in a few weeks' time. But during the war it proved a calamity to the German Empire, for there was in her stalwart ranks a very minimum of initiative, of versatility, of capacity to make quick adjustments to changed conditions. Since the war the German Republic has largely discarded job analysis as the central principle in a national scheme

of education. But, on the other hand, the use of that procedure has grown, rather than decreased, in America.

Now comes the pertinent question: Which of these traditions does and shall the American teachers college follow? Or, if following neither exclusively, precisely what sort of combination of culture and practical proficiency should the teachers college effect?

In its early days the normal school was undoubtedly, for the most part, a job-analysis institution. Its subject-matter courses were simply the material which the students would have to teach after they had gone into service. They covered arithmetic, geography, English, and the other common-school subjects, and gave to the prospective teachers the very problems, facts, and topics which these would have to use with pupils. Supplementing the subject-matter courses of this sort were studies in the facts and theories of the general science and art of education and some actual practice in teaching pupils under the watchful criticism of an expert observer.

These early normal schools could assume, and did assume, that many of their gifted students, after receiving this teacher training, would go on to a further education in some academic college. Sometimes this second step was after teaching several years; sometimes it was immediate. At any rate, it provided for students with innate capacities to be leaders an opportunity to add breath and culture to the previously acquired specific professional proficiency.

This dual form of education was in several respects not satisfactory. But where the shoe pinched most was in the fact that the colleges, closely organized among themselves so as to insure unanimity of attitude and action, refused to regard, concerning these students, one year of normal school as the academic equivalent of one year in a college. Particularly they discounted subject-matter courses the content of which was largely elementary-school materials. Students coming from normal schools were heavily penalized. Furthermore, there arose in the college world a general attitude of belittling normal schools, the teaching in normal schools, and the individual teachers in such as individuals. Even today a college teacher who leaves to take a teachers college position suffers, in academic circles, a loss of caste.

Arising from the causes just set forth and from others, such as the fact that in sparsely settled regions the normal school often was the only institution above secondary rank which was available for young people not intending to teach, but wanting a higher education, the character of normal-school instruction changed considerably. A strong purely academic endeavor grew up, rivaling the colleges and commanding from them the respect and, not least of all, the formal interscholastic credit which they would give only to courses built on their own model. By such means normal-school teachers considerably mended their dignity, and the schools became somewhat better talked about by colleges. But the direct teacher-training endeavor was to no slight extent given up. Many con-

tent courses were installed which dealt in an academic way with conventional college subject-matter and had no direct bearing whatever on the use of materials in teaching. These were cultural courses, put in to give a conventional college course within the normal school. And, in some schools at least, the superior students almost invariably followed, and were advised to follow, this college course—specifically so labeled—which had, at its worst, nothing to do with teaching, and, at its best, very little. To save appearances (or perhaps for a more worthy reason), so-called “methods courses” were developed, of which a student would elect two or three; and these, apart from the instilling of subject-matter gave the student whatever he was to learn about the specific use of content in teaching pupils.

Normal schools have now become teachers colleges. Superficially, at least, teacher training is in a stronger position in American education than it has ever been in before. Of the basic facts, however, I am not quite so sure. A number of teachers colleges seem to be at this moment (perhaps my information or my grasp of the apparent facts is at fault) to be following simply the old academic tradition—in short, to be making of themselves colleges, of the old sort, as the main feature of their present expansion, and hoping to supersede all the old-line colleges in their respective vicinities. Teacher training is not in a strong position if, in pursuit of a will-o'-the-wisp, it abandons as its specific enterprise the training of teachers. In other words, students who do not plan to teach should not attend and should not be catered to in teachers colleges. The present attitude of some of us is natural: there is an old score to settle with the academic world for the humiliation it put on us in the days of its pomp and power. Now we ourselves are in the ascendancy. Nevertheless, would we not be wiser to restrain ourselves from that which we can now so easily grasp and to assure ourselves that teacher training is a fairly narrow function and should remain a limited, specifically professional undertaking?

The matter which we are now discussing is, I believe, the most critical problem involved in the development of teachers colleges in the near future. With state universities established and flourishing, and with many privately endowed old-line colleges earnestly inviting students in every part of the country, the question will inevitably arise in the mind of the public whether, instead of expanding teacher training into a fully equipped four-year course (or possibly even with graduate years added), it would not be much more economical and in results quite as satisfactory to have students taught subject-matter in one place—utilizing for this the existing academic institutions—and afterwards add, in an abbreviated teachers college, courses in materials and methods which would constitute a professional supplement, annexed to an academic foundation previously laid down. It is, indeed, an exaggeration to say that the question *will* be asked; the question is already being asked, and some teacher-training institutions are already being driven hard for an answer.

A reply to this honest and pertinent query must be provided. We are honorable public servants, not selfish partisans. Even if it hurts the particular phase of schooling in which we are personally the most interested, we wish the education of American youth to be served in the best possible way. What we desire, therefore, is a careful, honest, scholarly study regarding the best possible plan for using public money in a nation-wide endeavor to secure better-trained school teachers.

The crux of the inquiry will come, I believe, in an examination of our own subject-matter courses. We shall have to scrutinize them to ascertain honestly whether they really do incorporate within themselves a dynamic, professional attitude toward content, or could in their essence be given by instructors not informed about and not particularly interested in public-school teaching.

The professional training of teachers seems to consist, like all Gaul, of three parts—and three parts only—with which we surround candidates: *education*, the science and art, including psychology and studies in social adjustment; *content*, including ways of using content in inducing developmental activities in children; and actual *contact with pupils*, which we have been calling “practice teaching,” but may probably bring about in a considerable variety of ways.

No one nowadays thinks that a teacher should have less culture or a narrower breadth than a non-teaching college graduate; he should, indeed, have more; but in a truly professional school he will not be taught subject-matter apart from the use of subject-matter, for quite all his culture he is to use, in one way or another, in helping boys and girls to grow.

Content and Methods Inseparable

The subject-matter courses in a modern teachers college which has a clear vision of the service which it ought to render should every one be given from a professional point of view. They ought, no doubt, to contribute to general culture; for a broad, cultural horizon is indispensable to good teaching; but the generalization of the course should never be so great that in its midst teaching becomes insignificant or is lost sight of. And, on the other hand, the subject-matter poverty of the old-time normal school is wholly inadequate to the modern vision. Not merely the content which the prospective teacher will use directly with his pupils, but also a rich background of materials which he will seldom or never use directly, but often indirectly, should be instilled. And in the latter not less than the former pedagogical comments, suggestions, interpretations, and warnings should be interspersed.

The statement just made says in other words that subject-matter courses and methods courses should not be given separately. There is, I believe, no such thing as methods detached from content. From what I can learn of the best thought in teachers colleges, I think that we are all coming to

this position, although it is unquestionably true that many schools have not yet arrived.

Education Courses and Content Courses Converge

I have just stated, as my first positive conclusion regarding content courses in a teachers college, that every subject-matter course should be also a methods course, presenting always the applicability in school of the various materials dealt with. The second characteristic of admirable content courses is distinct, yet almost inseparable, from the point just mentioned. The specific education courses (including those in psychology and in adjustment to social situations), proceeding from the general premises of educational facts and theory, should approach from their own point of view every typical block of content contained in every subject-matter course offered in the school; and each of the latter should approach from its point of view, that of relationships and import within the broad field of organized subject-matter, the same typical block of content, and preferably at almost the same time of the year. This rather long statement means that, on each block of content, both the education courses and the content course should converge, each supplementing the other, so that the student is led to approach by two avenues and to see every topic with perfect, many-sided professional comprehension. This means coöperation, a uniting of every content course with the education courses which bear on its material, so that there is not friction, but harmony; neither duplication nor the leaving of great gaps, but closely fitted interrelationship.

If the faculty team-work just suggested is to be effected, one implication is quite clear: every subject-matter teacher must be informed upon and sympathetic with the important educational ideas which bear on his content field. This is going in time to mean, I anticipate, that the highest grade teachers college instructors in subject-matter will have the equivalent of two Ph.D.'s—one in the subject-matter field and one in education.

I think, further, that in self-defense, pertaining to the matter just discussed, teachers colleges are going to have to clean house in their faculties in the subject-matter departments to get rid of three kinds of teachers: those with insufficient scholarship regarding content—who will not do for *college* teachers of any sort; those (perhaps splendid in scholarship) who are essentially unfriendly to education, in the specific sense—who do not understand, or wish to understand, the education courses touching from another point of view their content field; and those who cannot or do not in their daily teaching integrate the attainment of knowledge and the use of that knowledge in the schoolroom as the inseparable parts of a professional grasp of subject-matter. If we harbor purely academic-college teachers, ultimately a part of our courses will be altogether cut off and placed in academic institutions where they will be taught alike to prospective teachers and to students not intending to teach.

An Impulse to Service

The third point which I would present is not unrelated to the two already given. The subject-matter course in a teachers college must be tinged throughout with a personal appeal, an inspiration, a grip on students which is different from that prevailing in a typical academic college. Teaching is service; it is altruistic; it aims to give, to uplift, to inspire and develop other persons, directly to benefit humanity. In an academic college a student may seek wisdom for himself alone; he may be essentially selfish; he may feel that he is a choice bit of humanity set apart from the common herd by innate superiority and destined by his college education to be even more set apart. Of course I do not undertake to assert that all college students hold such views; I know they do not; but the typical college, nevertheless, is much more concerned to promote the acquisition of knowledge than to inspire college students to use their wisdom chiefly as a means of benefiting humanity. There should be in a typical teachers-college course a strong ethical quality, permeating every topic, which points students toward a life of intelligent service. It should be specific, professional, thinking always about teaching.

Learning Through Activity

A fourth characteristic of what I believe to be the ideal teachers-college content course is that every class hour in subject-matter partakes more or less of laboratory methods. We are training for dynamics, not for a passive attainment. And just as we hold the view that the teaching of *pupils* is not effective unless at every point it produces activity, so in instructing our own students to be teachers we must with them use activity. We must practice what we preach. If we lecture to them, they will lecture to their pupils; if we teach them largely by the employment of apparatus, such will seem to them natural in their own instruction of children. The manner in which a subject is taught, in an ordinary college, is unimportant; the point is that the content must get across to students and be grasped by them; if it does get across and an examination can show it sticking in their minds, the teaching—no matter how it was done—is regarded as successful. But in a teachers college, on the contrary, the manner is an important factor, because it sets an example.

The use of apparatus is, then, an integral part of a high-grade teachers-college subject-matter course. I might add: not only the use of apparatus, but the making of apparatus, each student for himself—both to provide directly classroom material which he can save and use again and again with pupils, and also to give him the attitude, the skill, and the habit of constructing such materials. A teachers-college content course, intelligently given with full recognition of its possibilities, is necessarily tied up (I believe) with the recitation room in which it is given. An academic-college course can readily be moved about to suit administrative convenience in the utilization of rooms. It can be readily moved about, because it em-

plays only talk and perhaps writing in notebooks, and these are independent of place. But a teachers-college course in any content field is more or less like chemistry or physics; moved hit or miss into various recitation rooms, it loses very much of its finest value.

There is an important administrative corollary attached to the statement just made. If it be true, as I think it is, then a teachers college requires more housing space than does an academic institution. Rooms will be utilized all day long, not left vacant; but the use will be in the nature of informal occupation by students who happen at a given hour not to have a regular class and who busy themselves there in profitable laboratory-like occupations growing out of and inseparably connected with the formal class hour which they will have there at another time of day. If the teachers-college buildings are not large enough to permit this kind of instruction, and therefore content teachers must be moved about or their recitation rooms used at every other hour except their class times by other teachers, then (I believe) the highest grade of instruction of a distinctively teachers-college sort cannot be given. And if the building space is limited, I would remark, there are critical gains to be had by not throwing all the burden on the subject-matter teachers.

Scholarship—Assorted For Use

The university professor is a good deal devoted to what he calls "pure knowledge"—that is, facts and organizations of facts which, so far as any one can tell, have no practical value whatever, are not definitely connected with the needs of mankind. To a large extent a college professor apes his university preceptor. Not seldom he also glories in the detachment of anything he teaches from any immediate bearing on the solution of human problems. The academic college in general, however, is not far removed from human life. Now, precisely how much sifting, modifying, and reorganizing of old-line college subject-matter should be done to make it suitable for the teachers college is not yet known; it will have to be worked out carefully in the course of time. I am inclined to venture a general statement, however, that the high-grade teachers college will offer all the content which worth-while academic colleges offer and will add to this a great deal of content distinctively its own. It can do so because it will teach its own students more efficiently than does an academic college, and will thereby free much time and energy which can be devoted to the new content. Barring perhaps academic folderol (of which there is some), the teachers-college graduate should know much more, not less, than the old-line graduate. I have no kinship whatever with a milk-and-water conception of the scholarship necessary to a teacher.

While he is acquiring his learning, the teachers-college student will, however, test all facts with reference to the directness with which they can be used in instructing pupils. He will learn how to sift. His own wisdom will be assorted, as it were, to different levels, to some of which he will

know that he must not attempt to lead young pupils. The knowledge on the higher levels will contribute (as it would in an academic college) to his general grasp of the world, his philosophy, his culture; but additionally to that it will provide for him professionally a safeguard against random guesses and wild attempted explanations *ex cathedra*, the kind of thing which makes many an ignorant teacher foolish.

Wider Subject-Matter Fields

There is a sixth respect in which subject-matter in a teachers college differs from that in an academic institution. Perhaps it need not inevitably be so, but specialization has in the latter gone altogether too far to fit well into teacher training. Fields of knowledge have become too narrow and the fences between them too high. This is an imitation of university usage; it has arisen from the intensified study required for the doctorate—the narrow scope of which carries over into the young professor's own teaching in a college. It is hardly dignified nowadays to be a college teacher deliberately covering a wide field. One must be, not a professor of history (whatever one's title), but a specialist on early American history, or English constitutional history, or modern (continental) European history. History itself, in the broad sense, is not what it used to be, for there have been carved away from it in recent years fields now called economics, political science, sociology, anthropology, etc., which reduce it to a shadow of its former substance. The case is much the same regarding science. In both these fields, indeed, there have been determined efforts made by college departments to compel public-school administrators to put in high-school teachers of the narrowly specialized sort. The education of children, however, requires generalists rather than specialists. The high fences subdividing knowledge are, after all, merely conventions; they do not exist in the inherent nature of things. They are conveniences for advanced study; but superintendents and principals have, in general, had the good sense to realize that they do not belong in the more elementary instruction given in the public schools. For the public-school teacher a general acquaintance with a broad range of subject-matter is better than intense specialization. For him there is need also of an attitude of friendly affiliation among the different fields of knowledge, even if he be led into regions in which his grasp is rather insecure. In the best of modern teaching, children do most of the leading themselves; the teacher must be able to follow. The narrow specialist cannot do this; paralleling his amazing knowledge is an equally amazing ignorance; but the latter he seldom or never reveals, because in his teaching and his conversation he invariably keeps the lead, and if the topic changes, he maintains with an air of dignified disinterestedness absolute silence and detachment.

It is quite clear that the teacher-training school must separate content into broad, not narrow, divisions, and must build up in it students intelligent, sympathetic attitudes toward all knowledge and correlations of

knowledge. Quite possibly a good deal of depth in one or two narrow fields may also be given, the time for this being provided by the economies produced by a superior type of instruction; but if anything is to be sacrificed, probably it should be the depth rather than the breadth, for without the latter a young teacher cannot excel in modern unrestrictive instruction.

An interesting conjecture may be interpolated here regarding how a teacher-training school may best affiliate with an academic school if such an affiliation be forced upon it. The ordinary assumption has been that the academic school might lay the "foundation"—that is, give to students the first part of their course, to which would be added later the professional equipment toward the direct making of a teacher. Throughout the present paper runs an undercurrent of frank disbelief in the efficacy of such a procedure. Most teachers-college instructors seem to share this view. It requires more effort and leads to more disappointments, they seem to think, to *unmake* a typical academic-college product and build up from him a real teacher than to start anew with raw material. The teachers college should have the young candidate first; if it does not, there will be so much to undo that inevitably (as teachers colleges come to full self-realization) a certain penalty in time will have to be added to his training period. But, on the other hand, there seems to be no good reason why teachers colleges and universities should not affiliate toward the top reaches of education. Intense specialization, as has just been said, does not belong in the subject-matter fields of the teachers college; consequently, a student who goes on into the most advanced stages of training may be well served by the academic university specialists. He might be spoiled by their narrowness, but at that stage of advancement probably would not be; and this would be particularly true if he carried on at the same time professional studies. The statement here made is advanced tentatively; as a matter of fact, no one knows how a partnership of teacher training and academic education can be worked out. The relationships now existing are the result of accident or of arbitrary adjustment, and probably no one of them can be said to be fully satisfactory.

New Subject-Matter—Affiliated

A seventh difference between the two types of institutions is that the teachers college includes in its curriculum content fields which have never been fully received into the purely academic world. Health, physical education, music, home economics, manual arts, sociology, and other subjects are incorporated on an equality with those conventionally long established in colleges. A broader statement would be that the public school recognizes, as academic colleges do not yet, that education is not wholly intellectual. The emotions and the volitions must be developed, as well as the ability to remember and to think. And not only does the teachers college incorporate these newly recognized fields as entities within its cur-

riculum, but it also endeavors to have all its traditional content departments affiliate as much as possible with these as well as with each other. Students are taught to achieve results in their schoolrooms through drawing into one endeavor elements derived from every department of their college training.

How Learning Comes About

An eighth point of difference is that in the teachers college the student is made conscious of the mental processes involved in learning each block of content. A correct answer is not enough; the road by which that answer was reached must be known and carefully studied. The process is even more important than the attainment of the desired goal. The student teacher must learn how to build an approach which is the best possible for the children in his class—to determine the general direction in which his teaching shall proceed. And, in addition to this, he must know the pitfalls, the snares, the forks in the road which may entrap children or lead their thinking astray. The academic college class is concerned with none of these things; the “right answer,” the acceptable accumulation of facts, is its only recognized goal.

Certain absurd things have been said by extremists, based on the point just made, which probably no sane teachers-college instructor believes. Among these are, for instance, statements that facts are of no importance and the process is everything. It may be well, therefore, to say here that, in my judgment, facts—the sheer, brutal mastery of what is true and the disentangling of this from what is not true—are quite as important in the teachers college and in the public school as anywhere else, although along with them goes a careful study of the processes by which they are attained. The one certainly does not crowd out the other.

Difficulty and Frequency of Use

There has been incorporated, ninthly, into the content taught by teachers colleges a careful sifting and assorting of that content which has not been widely received into academic schools. This assorting is with reference to relative frequency of use by normal adults and by children and with reference to inherent difficulties in the content itself which hinder learning. Every well-taught student in a teachers college comes to know what blocks of subject-matter are widely used and what are not; he knows even precise mathematical measurements which enable him to set definite relative values determined by known facts regarding social usefulness. He knows what to emphasize and what, if necessity compels curtailment, to slight in his teaching. He has learned also the facts, if not always the reasons for the facts, to the effect that somehow certain parcels of content are more difficult to learn than others. The words in spelling are, for instance, now arranged in precise graduations, both in this respect and in the other mentioned, which were quite unknown a few years ago and are now a part of the professional content of teachers colleges rather than of academic institutions.

The Control, Guidance, Direction of Children

A tenth characteristic of a teachers-college subject-matter course is, I think, its sorting of content and safeguarding of content with reference to the probable conduct of pupils which will be induced thereby in a modern school in which natural reactions are not prohibited. Children are children, not small-sized adults. Certain things strike them very differently from the way they strike adults. For the general welfare of his schoolroom the prospective teacher must be informed how to keep order partly by a skilful and judicious use of content. The control of pupils determines, at bottom, the educational success or failure of every classroom undertaking. Untrained teachers learn what they do learn of this by painful trial and error. Inadequate teacher training has tried to inculcate it through formal lectures or recitations from a textbook. The really adequate teachers college will approach it, I think, in a large and systematic way in some course in the department of education; but every content teacher should get at it, I am convinced, also from the point of view of subject-matter whenever the topics being considered have a bearing on it.

Subject-Matter and Prejudiced Adults

Another matter is not far removed from this one: the effect of certain subject-matter on particular communities and various peculiar groups of persons. A teacher serves not only a school, but also a community. By lack of foresight, of tact, of clever adaptation of materials, he may grievously offend the patrons of his school—adults narrow and prejudiced, perhaps, but capable of being molded by wise handling into friends of education and the school. An instructor in subject-matter in the teachers college can, by attending to this sort of thing whenever the topics brought up touch dangerous ground, guide young teachers away from many pitfalls. I would hardly call it an incidental matter. Tactful adjustment of one's teaching to what the community needs and what it can stand is one of the great secrets of successful social service through the school.

Enriched Personal Worth and Manner

I hardly know whether the point which I have next in mind belongs distinctively to the subject-matter departments, but I am sure that it is important in the general undertaking of the teachers college. Every trainer of teachers helps as best he can the young candidates before him to achieve a personality, an appearance, and a manner likely to be most serviceable to them in their profession. As they react to stimuli in his classes, he guides them with this in mind. Much of the success of a master in the schoolroom is determined not by his knowledge or his devices, but by his personal attractiveness. The trainer of teachers knows this; he knows that the personal qualities of each student supplement for good or evil the scholarship, the technical methods, and all else that the course

can inculcate; therefore, though he deals with it, for the most part, imperceptibly, the personality of each student is a definite part of the content of his course.

This is relatively foreign to the procedure of the academic college. The typical professor there would be out of sympathy with it. Knowledge is his province, not living personalities. He would feel interference with such to approach an impropriety. It would have nothing to do with education in the sense in which he imparts it. It is peculiarly a part of the typical thought of a professional school.

Specific Subject-Matter Not Academic in Character

There is a good deal—rather a surprising amount—of downright bookish subject-matter which is important in a teacher-training course and altogether omitted from an ordinary college course. In this class comes, for instance, an acquaintance with all the textbooks likely to be offered for use with pupils, an acquaintance with the reference books which pupils can use, and a pretty thorough mastery of all the pedagogical literature. But a general statement of this peculiarly teacher-training content which is now coming into use is less satisfactory, it seems to me, than a concrete presentation of the idea. I am, therefore, venturing to include in this paper an outline from my own notes showing what, in my own classes in Peabody College, I should expect my students in a certain course, "The Major Classics," to know about Shakespeare's *Macbeth*. Practically the same outline holds for eleven other classics. The students would first have read *Macbeth*, much as an academic college class would read it, but with comparatively little attention from me. A certain amount of it each person would have memorized. This is not a requirement in the sense that specific lines are set for the purpose or the number mastered checked against a possible penalty, but it is well understood that the teacher who knows his material by heart has a great strategic advantage in the classroom; and, therefore, we try to memorize all classics (except long prose), or as much of them as we can in the time available. In addition to the reading and the memorizing, the following outline shows the material which we undertake to bring together:

TEACHER TRAINING FOR HIGH-SCHOOL ENGLISH: THE MAJOR CLASSICS

TOPICS ON ONE CLASSIC (say *Macbeth*)

Extent of use in the schools

General use in school curricula

Occurrence in college-entrance requirements

Amount of use in the various school grades

Educational objectives which can be attained through teaching this classic

Editions available

Standard editions (including the authoritative editors)

School editions

The best school editions for own teaching

Anthologies which include this classic

- Interesting bibliographical information—about the MSS., early editions, rare editions, etc.
- Appreciations and criticisms
- Entire essays in criticism (outlines; references)
 - Citations from criticisms (usually quoted verbatim)
 - The most capable critics
- What now lives (outside of school)
- Extent to which it is now read by adults for enjoyment, or played, or quoted from
 - Historical, causal influence on the literature of today
- Background material bearing on this classic
- Biography (of the writer) and history background
 - Fact background
 - Language background—vocabulary, grammar, etc.
- Ideas on teaching this classic
- Outlines, topics, and questions available in published form
 - Entire essays on the pedagogy of this classic
 - Citations from published suggestions on pedagogy
 - Ideas received from the teacher
 - Ideas received from fellow students
 - Your own ideas about how to teach this classic
- Equipment helpful in teaching this classic
- Visual materials—maps, charts, diagrams; pictures; illustrated editions; illustrated articles in magazines; facsimiles of pages from early editions; etc.
 - Auditory materials—music, graphophone records; notable oral readings (on graphophone records or, perhaps, in vivid descriptions of how some notable person read)
- Testing and grading pupils on this classic

Of the eleven principal topics in this outline, only two (*Appreciations and Criticisms* and *Background Material*) would receive attention in a typical course in an academic college. These two, moreover, would be taught from a different point of view—that of seeking the student's own cultural development, of serving himself alone; the teachers-college course, though not neglecting his own development, would chiefly aim to equip him specifically to pass on to young people what he has himself obtained, in so far as their age permits them to grasp it.

The illustration has been from what might be called the "academic side" of teacher training. As one proceeds more toward the pedagogical side (although it is all continuous; there is no boundary line), one sees even less resemblance to old-line college subject-matter. Everything that a college teaches is there; it is taught; but it is dwarfed by the larger amount of new, unacademic material. Here is, for instance, a part—only a part—of my outline in a course entitled "Composition and Language in the Elementary School":

COMPOSITION AS ORGANIZATION AND ADJUSTMENT (including both spoken and written language)

- Objectives of Composition as an elementary-school subject
 - Uttering connected thought through speech
 - Uttering connected thought through writing
 - Receiving connected thought through listening

The spirit of Composition in the school

General self-realization and self-expression (not through language alone)

Means other than language—music, dancing, drawing and painting, modeling and sculpture, etc.

Physical accompaniments of language

The spirit of the use of language by boys and girls

Interested use for genuine self-expression

Attitude of desire to excel in every respect in mastery of language.

The class hour in Composition (stimuli; activities; technique)

Stimuli to induce composition

Social situations as stimuli

The use of pictures as stimuli

Activities—games, etc., of the Composition hour

Imitating the teacher's example of skilful usage

Business conversation

Social conversation

Business writing

Social writing

Public speaking

Criticism—the technique of developing critical appreciations of the use of language

Having a sentence sense

VOCABULARY

The different vocabularies each person has

Commanding the adequate word or phrase

The use of dictionaries

The use of a thesaurus

Words according to frequency of use—by children and by adults, in speech and in writing

SPEECH CORRECTNESS (adherence to conventional, established usage)

Speech sounds and utterance

The standard sounds of the English language

Remediable defects of utterance

Defects beyond remedy by the teacher

Provincialisms, especially those of our locality

Pronunciations of words

Standard of pronunciation

Evolution of pronunciations of words

Notable mispronunciations; their causes

Intonation of phrases and sentences

How to teach speech correctness (pedagogy; technique)

Habits of correctness (how to form them)

Imitating the teacher's example of correctness

Practice, under observation and criticism

Games to develop habits

Formal exercises to develop habits

Grammar as an aid to forming correct habits

Teaching pupils how to ascertain facts about what is correct in speech

Use of the dictionary to inform one

Use of formal grammar to inform one

CORRECTNESS IN WRITING (adherence to conventional, established usage)

Making written characters and words

Handwriting

Printing by hand

- Typewriting
- Printing with type
- MS. usage and requirements in certain schools and in the adult world
- Paragraphing a written discourse
- Spelling
 - The philological background of English spelling
 - Simplification of spelling
 - Standards of spelling
 - Fact and opinion regarding standards of spelling
 - Notable misspellings; their causes
 - How to teach pupils to spell
 - History of the teaching of spelling
 - Technique; methods in present-day good standing
 - Known facts
 - Opinions and suggestions
 - Bibliography: Good books about teaching how to spell
- Textbooks in spelling for use in schools
 - Old textbooks
 - Modern textbooks
- What words to teach in spelling
 - Scientific studies of vocabularies and of relative difficulty to spell
 - Usage of the textbooks regarding what words to spell and how to arrange them
- Phonetics as an aid in spelling

A mere glance at the topics in such an outline shows beyond question that they constitute a very solid and respectable subject-matter, and that this content is different from college content of the old-line sort and belongs to teacher training alone.

Measuring the Results of Instruction

There are two other points in the long list I am presenting of notable differences between the subject-matter courses in teacher-training schools and academic colleges. The first of these is that teachers colleges give to students an elaborate technique of how to test or measure the results of teaching. Very substantial scientific material on this aspect of education has been worked out, as everybody knows; it is taught in teachers colleges alone in intimate contact with the subject-matter with which it deals.

How to Avoid Waste of Energy

The final point in this paper is that the good trainer of teachers always instructs in how to obtain desired results with the least possible expenditure of effort. One of the great problems in modern teaching is how to do it and yet remain alive, for even in the best-equipped and best-organized schools the pressure on conscientious teachers is terrific. Cutting out waste motion is a part of every good teacher-training content course. Students must learn how to economize their time and strength in every way which will not handicap them in the main purposes of teaching. There are hard ways to acquire, to organize, and to hold ready for use materials for the classroom, and there are easier ways. Sometimes the way ultimately

easiest is at first the most exacting of effort. Systematic note taking and note filing, systematic and effective study, and the subordination of incidental matters to essentials are of crucial importance in good teacher training and not much emphasized in colleges. Materials must be assimilated so as to be readily available for use.

Summary

This paper has attempted to differentiate teachers-college instruction from old-line academic instruction in fifteen respects. Confessedly a part of the statements are put forth on a narrow basis. I believe they are accurate, but there is need of much more self-study within the teacher-training schools. Many of them, perhaps most, have not yet carefully analyzed their undertaking and are at present "muddling along," partly conscious of their big work, but in many respects half-heartedly imitating the old-line college, and, as a whole, combining rather superficially, without integration, purely college endeavors with normal-school job-analysis methods of a very narrow sort. The differences from academic-college instruction which seem to be realized by the best instructors and the best teachers colleges I have in this paper set down as these:

1. Subject-matter and methods of using it are inextricably blended, not separated into distinct courses.

2. Subject-matter courses coordinate accurately with courses in the formal department of education in leading every student to every block of content by two avenues, from different points of approach.

3. Subject-matter courses are tinged throughout with a professional spirit, an enthusiasm for teaching, an urge toward the use of one's knowledge to benefit mankind.

4. Dynamics, not passive attainment, is the goal; therefore, every course is essentially a laboratory course, using apparatus and producing in students activity.

5. The teachers college teaches more content, not less, than an academic college. It does not try to produce teachers by much of method and little learning. It does, however, teach the sifting of knowledge to segregate what cannot be used directly with pupils.

6. The teachers college turns away from narrow specialization within particular subject-matter fields, for a broad knowledge is better for a teacher than intense application to a small portion of a subject.

7. It touches certain new fields, which are unacademic, but important in general education, and affiliates its other fields with them.

8. It deals with the mental processes involved in learning, not merely with factual results, but does not slight the latter in attaining a grasp of the former.

9. It utilizes what is known about the relative degree of usefulness in life and the relative degree of inherent difficulty in learning contained in each parcel of subject-matter, and asserts and emphasizes content with reference to these matters.

10. The arranging of knowledge with reference to how to use it with children has a bearing on the control of pupils in the classroom—the guidance and direction of their energies, which is a most important factor in teaching. An academic instructor knows nothing about this and cares nothing.

11. A content course in a teachers college pays attention to the possible effect of various things on particular communities and particular groups of adults, for the success of a teacher as a force in community life depends largely on his wisdom and tact in dealing with adults.

12. It incorporates the personal manner and attractiveness of the students themselves, for the result sought will be a combination of personal with bookish qualities, not the latter alone.

13. Its bookish content—subject-matter in the old-line sense—is to a large extent different from typical academic-college content, quite as substantial, and not less dignified and worthy of study.

14. It instructs students regarding how to measure the results of teaching—a new and important field of knowledge which has not been taken into the academic college.

15. It teaches systematization, for the ability to economize effort and time is an important part of success in the schoolroom.

THE PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS

ROBERT H. WRIGHT, PRESIDENT OF EAST CAROLINA TEACHERS COLLEGE
GREENVILLE, NORTH CAROLINA

If you good people are expecting something from me this evening that will carry out the traditional idea of a southern speaker, you are going to be sadly disappointed in "The Address of the President." I am too much concerned about the problems that confront the American teachers college to give very much of my time and thought to the way I shall say what I shall say. I am a plain blunt man, and probably will just say in a plain blunt way some of the things that I believe our Association should do.

This Association holds the key to the solution of America's educational problem. Are we going to unlock the door and find the solution, or are we going to continue to compare our schools to the liberal arts institutions? Are we going to dig in and find the solution or are we going to continue to imitate others even though they have a different objective.

The people of America are waiting for us to come out boldly and say "From now on we are going properly to train teachers for your children. Our colleges are going to do this one thing, and only this one thing, namely, turn back to the public schools well trained and efficient teachers."

This is the great problem that confronts our Association. As I see this problem it means that we must first establish some very definite standards for the American teachers colleges. These standards must be made upon the basis of the needs of a teachers college, and not upon the basis of any other type of institution.

The work of a professional school is not like the work of any institution giving general information. The standards for a professional college, therefore, must be different from the standards of other colleges.

If this meeting of the American Association of Teachers Colleges can definitely determine upon the right kind of standards for teachers colleges, and at subsequent meetings change these standards to meet changing conditions we will have laid down a secure foundation upon which we are to build the teachers college of tomorrow. I do not believe we can do this on the basis of degrees as degrees are now given by colleges in America. I am convinced that it is necessary for us to go back of the degree into the content of the work done to secure a given degree. I am persuaded that a Bachelor's degree or a Master's degree or even a Ph. D. degree from the liberal arts college does not necessarily prepare a person for efficient work in a medical college, a law school, a dental college, or a teachers college. To be an efficient teacher in a medical college a person must know medicine. To do efficient work in a dental college a person must know teeth. To do good teaching in a teachers college a person must know the subject-matter, and must have the professional training necessary for this particular type of work. It is necessary, therefore, that in the establishment of standards that we go back of the degree and into the course of study.

In a peculiar way the American teachers college holds the traditions of our country, the future of our citizenship, the stability of our government, and the safety of our homes within its keeping. There are 150 colleges in this Association scattered over every section of our republic. Annually, we turn back into the republic schools a large number of young men and young women who are to teach the childhood of this republic. The ideals that we hold and impart to our student teachers are the ideals they carry into the public schools and to the children of our nation. There is a greater responsibility resting upon the American teachers colleges than rests upon any other type of institution within our borders. It behooves us, therefore, to guard carefully the things we do, to place into our institutions teachers with correct ideas of our government, to give to our student teachers that kind of training that will enable them to pass it on to the children of America and thus give to our republic the highest type of citizen.

Business organizations, public service organizations, subdivisions of our own government all realize the importance of putting their ideas over through colleges. Even the War Department of the United States government realizes the importance of teaching military training in the high schools and colleges of America. In 1925 Congress appropriated over five million dollars to be used for R. O. T. C. Training and Citizens Military Training Camp work. This work is being done in 226 institutions; beginning with the high school and going through colleges and universities. Last year over 160,000 citizens took training of this kind. Fifteen thousand more than our standing army. In many of these institutions the military training is compulsory. I take this item to illustrate my point because

Winthrop D. Lane has recently written a pamphlet about it, and it goes to show how even those who wish to train our citizenship to believe in war are using the schools and colleges to further their purpose. If the American people believe that we should go on a military basis, then it becomes our duty to teach this idea to the children of America. On the other hand if the American people are against training for war, then it becomes our duty to send out teachers for the children of our nation who will teach against war and in favor of peace. I believe the American people do not want their children taught to settle international differences by the sword. Believing this, I think Congress is making a mistake to appropriate over five millions for this purpose, and that our high schools, colleges, and universities are doing the nation a positive harm to let this kind of thing be carried on through them. I am not talking about the land grant colleges. The main point I wish to get before you is that the responsibility for the future citizenship rests more heavily upon the American teachers college than it does upon any other institution in our country, and that it behooves us to see to it that the American youth has as his teacher a person who is trained with real American ideals. Ours is not only a great task, but it is almost a sacred responsibility. When we realize this we will no longer want to be like some other institution, but we will want to build in America teachers colleges that will give real service to the children of our republic.

To do these things it will be necessary for us to re-work the course of study; it will be necessary for us to find out just what should be done in a given grade; it will be necessary for us to question everything that is being done, and find out how much truth there is in it and how much error. It will be necessary for us to take the good out of the multitude of tests that are offered, and use these tests as a means of forming a judgment with reference to individual cases. It may mean the shifting of much of the work from grade to grade, and of taking some work out of the grades and putting it into the high schools, and taking some of the work out of the high schools and dropping it into the grades. In short, it will mean that we must start from the beginning and work out on a scientific basis just what should be done with a child at a given stage of his intellectual development. When this course of study has been re-worked I am sure we will find it necessary to re-write practically all of the textbooks. The textbook of today is a wonderful help to the inefficient teacher, and quite often a tremendous handicap to the teacher who knows how. Too often a textbook is written with the major object in view being, "The royalty I can get." We must realize that all of this work is done for the child; that the millions being spent annually are spent to make better citizens; that the one great thing in all of this scheme is a better citizen out of each American child. We must let a little child lead us.

Of course all this will cost money, and the American people will say that we can not afford it. The time has come for us to give the American people the truth. We must either pay a school tax or we must pay an

ignorance tax. Our ignorance tax is greater than our school tax should be.

It is estimated that crime alone is costing the American people more than three times the total expenditures for public education. If the American children were properly trained crime would decrease, the criminal becoming a productive citizen, thus adding to the material wealth of our nation and decreasing overhead expense to take care of criminals. It is after all an economic problem. It will pay the people of America to invest their money in citizenship instead of in the protection of life and property against criminals. I believe the American people have sense enough to see this if you and I have sense and grit enough to tell them the truth. Ours is the greatest task in America. Shall we measure up to our obligation and our responsibility. I believe we will not be found wanting.

ON WHAT SHOULD STATE TEACHERS COLLEGES PLACE CHIEF EMPHASIS IN DEVELOPING HIGHER STANDARDS?

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The state normal school of yesterday has become the teachers college of today and has entered the field of higher education. The elevation of the state normal school to the rank of a college represents a great expansion of the original conception of the normal school. Its European progenitor had contact only with the lower schools and was not a part of the system of higher education. The founders of the normal school idea in this country had in mind only service to elementary schools and never dreamed that this creation of theirs would ever become a college.

The nation-wide movement which has swept from Massachusetts to California, by which state normal schools have been converted into teachers colleges, with power to grant standard bachelors' degrees in education, and even graduate degrees in a few institutions, has been accomplished largely in the last ten years. There are now only ten states in which legal authority does not exist for offering four-year collegiate curricula and the granting of appropriate degrees by governing boards of state normal schools. It is reasonably safe to predict that within another decade there will be in the United States hardly a state normal school or a city training school for teachers which has not been made a degree-granting college.

The introduction into the field of higher education of this new group of institutions has raised several significant problems in higher education. What shall graduate schools of universities do with graduates of these new institutions? What shall be the ultimate status of these new higher institutions for the professional education of teachers? What shall be their educational characteristics, their standards, their type of organization, their field of service?

Often in the past, pointed criticism has been directed at state teachers colleges for certain alleged imperfections, among which were: their ambition to expand their field to include the training of teachers for secondary schools, their desire to assume the name of college instead of normal

school, the superficiality of their work, the meager scholarship of their faculties, the incoherency of their curricula, the absence of productive scholarship, and other similar deficiencies and misconceptions of their place and function which were alleged to exist. These criticisms, it is true, are less evident today than they were ten years ago.

It is well that the executives of these institutions should give serious consideration to these matters. Is there foundation in fact now for these criticisms? What are the legitimate objectives of the teachers college of today? Do the alleged faults still exist? Can they be remedied? Constructive self-criticism which is fair and just, and true to the facts, is greatly to be desired at this stage of the development of the teachers college. If followed by remedial measures, when faults are discovered, it can result in no harm. No institution is without faults. No institution has ever advanced by closing its eyes to its own shortcomings.

This new type of collegiate professional school has not yet reached a final stage of perfection. Its faults and imperfections, its weaknesses and shortcomings, its deficiencies and defects are largely those of immaturity. Acts of state legislatures have raised to the rank of full-fledged colleges, institutions which have only recently emerged from the secondary school stage. What wonder, then, that a critical observer can note some imperfections? Those who are directing the affairs of these institutions are keenly aware of the existence of many defects.

It is undoubtedly true that some teachers colleges have proceeded immediately after an act of the legislature to set up four-year curricula and grant degrees, without taking sufficient time to develop curricula and faculties of collegiate standard, and to secure necessary equipment and facilities. There is no doubt that many of these newly developed teachers colleges lack most of the characteristics of institutions of genuinely high collegiate standards. An institution cannot transform itself in a day. There are undoubtedly state teachers colleges with standards of the highest collegiate type. It is probably also true that there are teachers colleges now granting degrees which are below junior college status. This is not surprising on account of the rapidity of the development of teachers colleges.

There is one established fact about the state teachers college. It is undoubtedly a permanent addition to the ranks of institutions of higher education in the United States. Corollary to this is the fact that the teachers college eventually will occupy exclusively the field of preparation of teachers for every type of teaching service carried on in the public schools of the United States. Just as prospective engineers will go only to an engineering school and prospective lawyers only to a law school, so teachers, supervisors, administrators, and all others who seek to enter any branch of teaching service below the level of college, will go to the teachers college for the undergraduate part of their preparation. Unless it organizes a definite teachers college which meets the standards and requirements of such institutions, the liberal arts college will not permanently participate in the professional preparation of teachers any more than in the preparation

of lawyers, engineers, or physicians. The public will demand specific preparation of the type which can be secured only in a college wholly and sincerely devoted to the professional education of teachers.

This places a grave responsibility upon the teachers college. If it does not become an institution capable of occupying this field and does not secure, by the strength and quality of its work, the recognition which will enable it to occupy the field as the exclusive institution for preparation for this particular form of public service, it will fail and it will be replaced by some other institution which is capable of rendering this service.

These facts raise what is perhaps today the chief problem of the American Association of Teachers Colleges. In essence it is the problem of adopting and enforcing proper standards for the institutions within the membership of this association. State teachers colleges are facing a situation which will be critical unless it is effectively met. The great influx of degree-graduates of these colleges into universities as applicants for admission to graduate schools of education has raised a problem concerning the status of the degree of these institutions. Universities are in process of setting certain standards to which teachers colleges must conform in order to secure acceptance of their degree. The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools now has a committee at work formulating new and higher standards for teachers colleges, conformity to which will be required for admission to the association. A leading city superintendent of schools of a certain state recently declared that, in the employment of teachers, the employing officials of that state will refuse to accept the degree of the teachers colleges as equivalent to other college degrees, if it is granted under such conditions that it cannot be accepted by graduate schools for further work in education.

Thus, today the teachers colleges of America are confronted with the problem of setting up and enforcing certain standards or having external agencies set and enforce these same standards. If they do not set their own standards, they will be in danger of being molded into institutions bearing no resemblance to a teachers college.

The handwriting is now being inscribed upon the wall. If teachers colleges allow themselves to be standardized by the North Central Association they will be in grave danger of losing their status as professional schools and of becoming liberal arts colleges with a small amount of professional work in their curricula. In fact, there is ground for suspicion that this is already happening in the case of some institutions. What other conclusion can be reached when some teachers colleges, which are now members of the North Central Association, report that they require for graduation only thirty hours of student teaching?¹ Student teaching in a well organized laboratory school has been held to bear the same relationship to the acquisition of effective technic in the practice of teaching as

¹ Proceedings of the Thirtieth Annual Meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Part I, fourth unnumbered table containing statistics of "Teacher-Training Institutions," between pp. 28 and 29.

does hospital work in acquiring skill in the technique of the practice of medicine on the part of medical students. A teachers college which gives up or minimizes this aspect of its work would be like a medical school which has no clinical facilities. Such a medical school could not exist under the standards of the American Medical Association. Such a teachers college would be little different from a liberal arts college.

Is not the American Association of Teachers Colleges the only proper agency to set and enforce standards for teachers colleges? Is it not desirable to adopt such standards as would place teachers colleges on the same academic and professional level, as regards curriculum, faculty, and other requirements, as university undergraduate professional schools? These are perfectly reasonable and attainable standards, although it may take newly created teachers colleges a few years to develop and get into full operation under such standards. The development, on a high collegiate basis, of such branches of professional education as are represented by medical schools, law schools, schools of education, engineering, theology, commerce, journalism, dentistry, pharmacy, public health, forestry, and even nursing, architecture and aeronautics, has gone forward with great rapidity during the last five years.¹ Definite "schools" in all of these fields have been established as parts of state and endowed universities, with standards which conform to the highest university requirements.

Under the influence of the American Medical Association, a transformation has taken place in medical education in the last decade. Weak medical schools have been forced to close their doors or improve their standards and equipment. High entrance requirements have been established and the curriculum has been reorganized, extended, and improved. The advancement in the character of medical education has been so rapid that it has been described as nothing short of "dramatic." This remarkable progress has been achieved largely through a vigorous promotion of high standards by medical schools themselves and by the American Medical Association. One half the medical schools which existed ten years ago do not exist today, for the reason that they could not meet the standards of an advancing age. They were chiefly private medical schools. Those which have survived are largely connected with state or endowed universities.

Other professional schools have gone through about the same experience. When facts were brought to light concerning law schools and their standards and methods, there was immediate reorganization and a strong impetus toward high standards, which resulted in a large reduction in the number of such schools. Schools of theology have revised and reorganized their programs and have now placed themselves upon a vastly higher level than prevailed a decade ago.

In a word, every type of professional school in existence has found it necessary, under recent conditions, to revise its program and elevate its

¹ The facts in this and the two following paragraphs are brought out clearly in Lincoln's "Tendencies in College Administration," pp. 97-101, of which these paragraphs are a summary.

standards. This is significant history and cannot be ignored by any new type of collegiate professional school which desires to take its place in the ranks of institutions of higher education. Why should not the American Association of Teachers Colleges set its own standards? Why should it not establish such standards as ought to govern professional education of teachers on a high college level? Why should it not then reject the efforts of all other standardizing agencies to determine what standards shall govern teachers colleges?

What now are the factors which should be taken into account in thus revising the program for teachers colleges? What is it which makes the difference between an institution of collegiate level and one of lower level?

A proposal to transform a national system of state normal schools in a decade into a system of state teachers colleges with undergraduate schools leading to a standard bachelor's degree, and sometimes with graduate schools, involves fundamental considerations which require careful and painstaking study in order to secure wise action.

The fact that an institution offers a four-year curriculum beyond high school graduation is no certain guarantee that completion of that curriculum should entitle the graduate to a standard bachelor's degree. The curriculum may not represent the type of organization, the standards, and the requirements which are today recognized as the proper basis for a degree. The courses may not be taught by persons who have the requisite scholarship to offer work of collegiate level. The standards of scholarship required of students may not be sufficiently high to warrant the granting of a degree.

There are many other problems which should receive consideration, such as entrance requirements, equipment, teaching load of faculty, financial support, requirements for graduation, and a variety of similar considerations. There are three main features, however, which must receive chief consideration in determining whether the work of a teachers college is on a sufficiently high level to justify granting to its graduates a standard bachelor's degree. These features are:

I. AN ADEQUATE SCHOLARSHIP STANDARD FOR STUDENTS.

II. PROPERLY ORGANIZED CURRICULA OF COLLEGIATE STANDARD.

III. A FACULTY SCHOLASTICALLY QUALIFIED TO OFFER WORK OF COLLEGIATE LEVEL.

This immediately raises the question, What is a properly qualified faculty for a teachers college? Breadth of scholarship and extensive training in both academic and professional fields to the extent of a very high degree of mastery in a single specialty, on the part of the members of the faculty, is one of the chief standards by which to judge the fitness of an institution to give work leading to a collegiate degree. While the amount of graduate study done by members of a faculty is not always a sure criterion of scholarship and teaching ability, yet in general it is the best in

dication available of that breadth of scholarship which is essential in teaching work of collegiate level.

There has been severe criticism of the holders of doctor's degrees who can not teach. Of course, there are persons of extended scholarship who can not teach. It is obviously not true, however, that every person who has acquired breadth of scholarship is a poor teacher, although it is true that possession of a doctor's degree is a certain guarantee of neither broad scholarship nor of teaching ability.

There is near at hand a very promising solution of the problem of securing persons of high scholarship who can also teach effectively. University graduate schools are beginning to put great stress upon the training of individuals of broad scholarship to be effective teachers. The recent announcement of the dean of the school of education of New York University is an example of a modern university graduate program of three years of study specifically pointed toward procuring a combination of broad scholarship and ability to teach. The graduate program of the University of California, requiring two years of graduate study and four years of professional experience, and leading to the degree of doctor of education, is another example of a graduate program in which the emphasis is placed upon producing a skilled practitioner of education, who has both broad scholarship and ability as a teacher. It is becoming increasingly possible to find men and women of personality and native ability who also have both the extensive scholarship produced by several years of graduate study and also superior teaching ability.

It can hardly be expected that members of a teachers college faculty who have not studied beyond the degree which the school expects to give will be equipped adequately in point of scholarship to give work leading to a bachelor's degree. The minimum preparation now required for high school teachers is that they shall be four or five years ahead of the most advanced students whom they teach. If every member of the faculty of a teachers college had training equivalent to that required for the doctor's degree, they would still not be as far ahead of their graduates as is the faculty of a good high school. It surely is not too high a requirement to demand that every teacher in a state teachers college should have studied at least one year in advance of the degree which the institution grants and that a large proportion should have done an amount of graduate work equivalent to the doctorate.

It is difficult to understand how the American teachers college can maintain its prestige as a collegiate institution unless this extended preparation is required of the faculties of these institutions. There are still many institutions in the field of teacher preparation which are granting bachelor's degrees with faculties whose average amount of preparation is less than that required for the same degree. These institutions have faculties whose average amount of training is no greater than that required of the graduates of the institution.

An examination of the training of members of the faculties of one hundred normal schools and teachers colleges, made a few days ago, revealed a significant situation. This was made on the basis of information contained in the catalogs of these institutions and on the assumption that the degree held by each person indicated the entire amount of training which that person has had, which is obviously not wholly true. A half dozen of the older and larger degree-granting teachers colleges were excluded in an effort to get a typical group of institutions in process of development. A number of normal schools with two-year curricula only were included.

It appears that fifty-six of these one hundred institutions are operating with faculties which have an amount of training which averages less than required for the bachelor's degree. One state normal school with a faculty of nineteen persons had only two with any kind of a degree. Another faculty of fourteen teachers had three with degrees. Still another faculty of thirty-eight individuals had thirty without any degree whatever. These one hundred catalogs represent the responses received to date from a request sent out some months ago for a copy of the catalog of each such institution in the United States, and is probably a typical selection of teacher training institutions doing work of college grade.

Can the American Association of Teachers Colleges continue to view with complacency a condition of this kind? Should there not be set up adequate standards with reference to preparation of faculty which every school must meet within a given time if it is to be maintained on the accredited list of the Association as a Class A institution? The time came in the history of every other type of professional school when it was obliged to stand upon firm ground in some of these particulars. Has that time not come in the case of teachers colleges? What harm will be done if some members of faculties are obliged to take leave of absence for a year or two years in the next five years for further study?

Another problem which demands solution is represented by the question, What is a properly organized curriculum for a teachers college? It is now generally accepted that one of the most important factors in the organization of professional schools of any type on a collegiate level is to secure curricula which consist of coherent sequences of courses so organized that they lead to advanced types of work in the last two years and specific achievement of a high order in one or two fields. Graduation on the basis of a four-year curriculum consisting in a large measure of elementary courses of freshman and sophomore level is regarded as a serious weakness in a college program.

There is general agreement that there should be in the senior division of any college a definite group of advanced courses requiring elementary courses as prerequisites, with a specific requirement that the curriculum of every student must include a certain proportion of courses of this kind. The development of this phase of the organization of teachers college curricula requires careful consideration and thorough study. Well rounded and well organized advanced courses of this type cannot be created over

night in the mind of an instructor who, for a decade, has been giving elementary courses in a school of junior college level. It will require a period of time, perhaps one or two years of study, to reconstruct and reorganize his material on an advanced basis of this kind.

The history of the teachers college movement clearly indicates that between the act of the legislature and the granting of degrees, in many schools, there has not been this period of development of courses of a higher level and such a reorganization of the institution as is necessary for the proper conduct of work of senior college level. The mere completion of four years of work without adherence to progressive lines of study leading to advanced work and a high degree of accomplishment in one or two fields has often constituted the curriculum on which degrees have been granted.

In the field of curriculum construction for the lower schools, significant progress has been made. There are professorships in universities devoted wholly to this problem. Commissions have been appointed which have made a thorough scientific analysis of curriculum material upon a scientific foundation. Curriculum principles which rest upon a basis of tested scientific data have been established. As a result of this kind of study, which has been going on for a decade or more, a scientifically constructed curriculum for the elementary school is beginning to emerge. There is great need that the same sort of a process be set in motion with reference to curricula for the professional preparation of teachers. Teachers college curricula are now more or less static and follow more or less traditional lines.

W. W. Charters has defined the problem clearly, showing that a trait analysis of teachers and a functional analysis of the work of teachers will be very helpful as a basis for constructing curricula which will specifically prepare for the work which teachers of different kinds are required to do.¹ Under a subvention from the Commonwealth Fund, Charters is making a functional analysis of the practice of teaching. It is the purpose to continue this study over a period of years and to determine what an individual needs to be and to be able to do in order to be an efficient teacher on any grade level. There is great hope and splendid promise in such an attack upon a problem of this kind. Scientifically constructed curricula for training teachers for the various types of teaching service will emerge from this study.

Following the lead of these suggestions, it is now possible to attack the problem of the teachers college curriculum in this scientific manner. What better organization is there to take the lead in reconstructing curricula for preparing teachers than this Association?

One may well ask at this point, With what degree of reliability can standards be established today for teachers colleges, covering curriculum, size of library, amount of student teaching, size of training school, and other similar problems? The answer must be that there now exists almost no

¹ Principles underlying the making of the curriculum of Teacher-Training Institutions, Educational Administration and Supervision, Vol. X, pp. 337-342.

scientific basis for a reliable guide in these matters. Opinion is now the chief basis for determining these matters.

There is little scientific information concerning the amount and the kinds of student teaching which are most effective. What the minimum library equipment should be is a question which no one can answer on the basis of well established scientific information. The proper content of courses in education which afford the best preparation of teachers for different types of service is a problem on which scarcely a beginning has been made in the way of a scientific approach. There is a multitude of similar unsolved problems in relation to the preparation of teachers in teachers colleges. Nevertheless, with good judgment and common sense, on the basis of all the experience of the past, workable tentative standards can be set up at the present time which will be better than no standards.

There is one aspect of this question, however, which seems to justify immediate emphasis upon longer and better curricula and higher standards. In all parts of the United States a great increase in attendance occurred in teacher training institutions directly after the war. The result was largely increased production of teachers. In some states this has already resulted in a wholesale oversupply of teachers.

The situation which now prevails in Wisconsin is perhaps an example of what other states may be approaching or may have already reached. The question of supply and demand in the training of teachers has been carefully and accurately studied by the state department of public instruction of Wisconsin. There is now reliable information at hand with reference to the annual demand for teachers in the state and the annual supply of teachers for different types of teaching service.

This year the supply of legally qualified teachers will exceed the demand to the extent of over a thousand teachers. In a word, Wisconsin is now accumulating a surplus of teachers at the rate of one thousand a year, who are graduates from teacher-training institutions. For example, there will be produced in Wisconsin this year one hundred fifteen more teachers for kindergartens than can be placed in the state. There will be a surplus of five hundred fifty high school teachers, seventy-eight home economics teachers, eighty-five manual arts teachers, ninety physical education teachers, and so on, in other fields of teaching. In every type of teaching service in Wisconsin there is now being produced by the teacher training agencies more than enough legally qualified teachers to satisfy the demand. The result is that all members of the graduating classes cannot find positions. There is not a sufficient number of positions open in the state in which to place every graduate. The continuation of this surplus of teachers will have a serious effect upon the public schools of the state.

These conditions, however, present the greatest opportunity which has ever come to the teacher training institutions of Wisconsin. With a surplus of teachers accumulating in the state, it is possible to supply the state with enough teachers and at the same time greatly to increase the requirements for graduation and the standards of teacher training institutions.

With this lengthening of curricula and elevation of standards, the state can still be supplied with an adequate number of teachers to fill every vacancy. At the same time a greatly improved product can be produced.

Serious consideration is now being given to the lengthening of curricula for elementary school teachers, other than rural, so that only three-year and four-year programs for these teachers will be offered.

When it is required that primary teachers shall spend three years in preparation, a large proportion will stay for the fourth year in order to secure the degree. This is clearly indicated by the experience with three-year and four-year curricula for high school teachers. Thus, it would be possible in Wisconsin to furnish enough teachers for the elementary schools all of whom have had not less than three years of training and a large proportion of whom have had four years of preparation.

At a recent meeting of the Board of Regents, two state normal schools in Wisconsin were authorized to put such a plan into operation. As a result, after next year, nothing less than a three-year program will be offered in the state normal schools at Oshkosh and Milwaukee for any kind of teachers except those for rural schools. One-year curricula for rural school teachers, which require high school graduation for admission, are offered in all nine Wisconsin state normal schools and also in thirty county normal schools, which, in Wisconsin, are not connected with high schools, but are independent institutions, in separate buildings of their own, under separate county boards of three members each, financed largely by the state, approved—and controlled as regards curriculum—by the state superintendent of public instruction.

In addition to the preparation of elementary school teachers, only three-year and four-year programs will be offered in the two state normal schools which have been selected for the longer curricula, for teachers of the so-called special subjects, such as manual arts, music, art, and similar subjects, and also for teachers in junior and senior high schools. The four-year curricula will lead to a standard bachelor's degree.

The time is near at hand in Wisconsin when the training of all teachers, other than rural, can be put on a minimum basis of three years in all of the state normal schools. This will make it possible to lengthen the required curriculum for rural school teachers to two years, for as long as that is the shortest curriculum available, the proportion of students taking that curriculum will remain about the same. Thus, every grade vacancy could be filled with a teacher who had had at least three years of preparation and a proportion with teachers who have had four years of preparation. Every vacancy in a rural school could be filled with a teacher who had had two years of preparation. This advanced program has been consummated in only two state normal schools, but it could be, and probably will be, extended to all of the normal schools in the state. At the same time the state will not lack an adequate supply of teachers.

This program of longer curricula and higher standards in Wisconsin is made possible by the fact of the overproduction of teachers in the state.

There is evidence that with these longer curricula enrollments in teacher training institutions would remain large enough to enable these institutions to supply the state with enough teachers to fill every vacancy. So long as the demand for primary teachers in any state can be fully met on the required minimum of three years of training, what excuse is there for maintaining a two-year curriculum? When four times as many manual training teachers as the state can absorb can be produced annually in three-year curricula, and probably twice as many as the state needs would be produced on a required minimum of four years, what reason is there for offering anything but a four-year curriculum for manual training teachers? Many other states in the union are approaching the same condition. In several states an oversupply of legally qualified teachers already exists. Has not the condition of supply and demand reached such a point in these states that they can properly greatly elevate the standards of their teachers colleges and at the same time produce an ample supply of teachers? California teachers colleges now offer only three-year and four-year programs for any kind of teachers. New York state normal schools offer only three-year programs. A five-year program to prepare for teaching in elementary and high schools and leading to a bachelor's degree, has been organized in the college of education of the University of Cincinnati. Has not the time arrived when emphasis should be placed upon longer training and higher standards, rather than upon increase in enrolments?

These, then, are some aspects of the problem. In what manner, now, may this problem be attacked? What plan for revision of its program of standards ought the American Association of Teachers Colleges to undertake? A plan embodying three features seems to be significant and to offer a means of embarking upon a line of progress and development which will lead to results of a valuable sort.

First, there may be adopted by this Association a set of standards which embody those features on which there is enough general agreement in practice to warrant establishing standards, or on which there is supporting evidence for the establishment of valid standards.

Second, there may be embodied in this set of standards certain provisional standards which may constitute for a few years a line to which to hew, a guide for future development, a goal toward which to work, with certain permissible minimums of attainment, below which no school may fall. These provisional standards will be based upon the best light available at the present time, but it would have to be frankly admitted that they are based upon opinion and tradition more than upon scientific data. As provisional standards, they will have considerable value.

It does appear that there is a very large range in the practices of the institutions belonging to the Association. For example, in faculty preparation there are some two-year normal schools giving work of college level which have only two or three persons on their faculties with even a bachelor's degree. There are also teachers colleges in which the amount of training of the members of the faculty averages about as high as that required for

a master's degree. In amount of student teaching in the preparation of elementary school teachers, the range appears to be from a minimum of thirty hours to a maximum of six hundred hours.¹ The range in amount of student teaching in the group of teachers colleges which are now members of the North Central Association is from thirty hours to four hundred ninety hours, with a median of one hundred twenty hours.² With reference to the content of the curriculum, there are those who hold that every course in the teachers college curriculum should be a professional course, while there are others who believe that fully three-fourths of the courses should consist of fundamental academic material. The permissible minimums will take care of these extremes of practice for a reasonable time until information is brought to light as a guide for action.

Third, there may be created a series of commissions which will work under the Committee on Standards and Surveys of this Association and which would begin work immediately to conduct a series of investigations of the various problems represented by these provisional standards and other problems of major importance upon which there is not now sufficient information to justify action. Each of these commissions might be given from one to five years to carry on a thorough scientific study of the problem assigned to it, at the end of which time it would report its findings and its conclusion to the Association, with recommendations for action. Five years of well-conceived research in connection with the problems of teachers colleges will throw such light on these problems that effective solutions of many of them will be at hand.

The following commissions are suggested:

COMMISSION ON ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS.

COMMISSION ON CURRICULUM.

COMMISSION ON PREPARATION OF FACULTY.

COMMISSION ON ORGANIZATION OF TRAINING SCHOOL AND STUDENT TEACHING.

COMMISSION ON TEACHING LOAD OF FACULTY.

COMMISSION ON LIBRARY EQUIPMENT.

A tentative set of standards, prepared by the writer and recommended for adoption by the Committee on Standards and Surveys, dealing with the essential features of a teachers college, is before the Association for its consideration.³ These standards are intended to be such that any accrediting agency which has occasion to accept the product of teachers colleges will be justified in accepting any institution which maintains a Class A rating under these standards. Such a rating will mean that the institution measures up to high standards of professional education in the field of teacher

¹ 1925 Yearbook of The American Association of Teachers Colleges, pp. 111-112.

² Proceedings of the Thirtieth Annual Meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Part I, fourth unnumbered table containing statistics of "Teacher-Training Institutions," between pp. 28 and 29.

³ These standards were adapted practically unanimously and appear in this Yearbook.

preparation which are the equivalent of high collegiate standards existing today in other fields of professional education. These proposed standards have been submitted to the membership of the Association for criticism and revised in the light of the suggestions received.

They have been so revised as to place, in the form of recommendations only, those provisions on which there is great variation in current practice. The date of taking effect of certain other standards has been postponed for several years, in order to give colleges sufficient time to bring their practice into conformity with the standards. In other respects they have been reasonably adapted to the various conditions which exist in the several states. It is believed that the Association could safely adopt them as they now stand.

A thorough-going study of current practices during the coming year by the Committee on Standards and Surveys would doubtless eliminate some of the extremes and make possible more conformity to desirable standards by next year. The present proposed standards will be valuable as a guide for study and a basis for elimination of extremes of practice during the coming year. It must be remembered that this is a new field in which scientific investigation of problems has not yet proceeded far, but it must also be borne in mind that it is a field in which current practices of higher institutions, custom, and general consent furnish a basis for standards which will have a great deal of value while a more valid basis for new standards is being established.

In conclusion, it seems reasonable that the American Association of Teachers Colleges should desire soon to embark upon a vigorous program of higher standards for teachers colleges. These institutions have met the needs of the past and they are meeting the needs of the present, but this is an advancing world. Neither teachers colleges nor any other institution can expect to remain static. Tomorrow will require more than today expects. To the teachers colleges of America has been assigned the preparation of the practitioners of that profession which is most important and which has the greatest effect upon human welfare. The profession, and the public, as attested by acts of legislatures in establishing teachers colleges, is committed to the idea that teachers henceforth shall be educated in professional schools of college level. Since teachers colleges are the institutions to which has been delegated the performance of this service, it seems to be a logical conclusion that they should represent in their standards and requirements professional education on a college level in its best and highest form.

*WHAT COURSES IN EDUCATION ARE DESIRABLE IN A
FOUR-YEAR CURRICULUM IN A STATE TEACHERS
COLLEGE? WHAT SHOULD BE THEIR SCOPE?*

E. S. EVENDEN, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA
UNIVERSITY

Teachers colleges are distinguished from liberal arts colleges today in at least three outstanding ways: (1) the greater unity of professional pur-

pose which characterizes the work of their faculties and students; (2) the more adequate provision which they make for practice and demonstration schools; and (3) the number and variety of courses in education which they offer. This report is concerned with the third of these differences.

According to several studies that have been made within the last few years, the courses in education (including psychology) represent between a fifth and a fourth of the work done by students in teachers colleges. In five recently proposed curricula for four-year teachers college course for the preparation of elementary teachers, the requirements in education and psychology were 29 percent, 23 percent, 23 percent, 22 percent and 19 percent of the total course.¹ When a subject is given as much time as this in a college course, it is to be expected that its relative value and its right to this time will be constantly challenged by those interested in other subjects which receive less time. Such challenging is desirable and should be encouraged, not only for education, but for all other subjects in the curricula of teachers colleges. "Lack of time" is the excuse, which is too frequently given in these schools, for failing to provide teachers with skills and information which are generally conceded to be a part of their desirable equipment. One method of gaining more time is to eliminate the unnecessary elements in all existing courses. The emphasis in recent years in professional schools for teachers has been to subdivide and elaborate courses in education rather than to condense and combine. The criticism that teachers are now being over-provided with methods and under-provided with subject-matter upon which to use the methods is being made too frequently to be ignored by those in charge of our teachers colleges. This is one reason why your committee on surveys and standards selected education as the subject for one of the first preliminary reports.

This report will be confined to a study of the courses in education in four-year curricula for the training of elementary teachers, with special reference to teachers of the intermediate grades. There are four reasons for putting this limit upon the study:

1. The preparation of teachers for the elementary schools is the most important task confronting our normal schools and teachers colleges today. The curricula which have to do with this task should be the first to receive the attention of this association. A study of four-year curricula for the preparation of primary teachers was recently made by Dr. Shelton Phelps and others.² This study was very thoroughly done and included a detailed discussion of the courses in education which that group considers desirable

¹ Carnegie Survey of Missouri Normal Schools—W. C. Bagley. Proposed four-year curriculum for intermediate teachers.

A Four-Year Curriculum for the Preparation of Elementary Teachers. Robertson, Phillips, Donovan and Phelps. Educational Administration and Supervision, September, 1925.

and 4. Proposed curricula of the "Curriculum Committees" of the major courses in Normal School Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1924-25, and 1925-26. Proposed Curricula for School of Education of Southwestern Louisiana Institute by J. M. Smith, 1925.

² Robertson, Phillips, Donovan and Phelps. A Four-Year Curriculum for the Preparation of Elementary Teachers. Administration and Supervision, September, 1925.

for primary teachers. The availability of this material was the principal reason for confining this study to the intermediate group.

2. The absence of any funds for the use of the committee on standards and surveys has prevented it from making the *comprehensive* study of the curricular offerings in the several subjects which must be made in the very near future. Rather than send out a long and complicated questionnaire which, at best, would result in only a small part of the needed data, it was decided to obtain all the information possible from catalogs and other printed sources. This method has the double advantage of saving your time at a busy season of the year and of providing data comparable to that in similar studies with which results could be compared and checked.¹

3. The education courses needed by the teacher in the intermediate grades are suggestive, if not typical, of those needed for all teachers in the elementary and junior high schools.

4. The education courses offered in connection with the preparation of high school teachers are so varied and the number of different possible fields of specialization is so great, that any superficial study of this problem will serve only to confuse the issue and postpone its correct solution.

All recent studies of the curricula of teachers colleges have shown that courses in education have increased in number very rapidly. One state teachers college² offers over seventy different courses in education and psychology, not to mention numerous other methods courses in the various subjects. Rainey³ found a total of 1492 different professional courses offered by 71 teachers colleges in the five subjects of methods, educational psychology, philosophy of education, management, and history of education. Dr. Shelton Phelps⁴ found it necessary to use twenty-nine different subdivisions in education in order to classify the courses offered in fourteen teachers colleges.

In this report the catalogs of 102 different schools in 42 states were examined. Four year courses for "intermediate teachers" or "elementary teachers" or "grammar grade teachers" were found in only 25 of these schools. These are the schools included in this study.⁵ More schools could have been used if the study had not been confined to 1925-26 catalogs.

¹ Shelton Phelps—The Two-Year Curriculum for Training Elementary Teachers, Journal of Educational Research, May, 1923.

Shelton Phelps—The Four-Year College Curriculum in State Teachers Colleges, Educational Administration and Supervision, September, 1923.

Newcomb, R. S.—The General Organization of the Curriculum in Standard Four-Year Teachers Colleges. Report before the American Association of Teachers Colleges, 1925.

Rainey, H. P.—A Study of the Curricula of Teachers Colleges. Educational Administration and Supervision, October, 1925.

Unpublished reports of "Curriculum Committees" of major courses in Normal School Education, Teachers College, Columbia University.

² Greeley, Colorado.

³ Ibid, p. 468.

⁴ Robertson, Phillips, Donovan and Phelps. A Four-Year Curriculum for the Preparation of Elementary Teachers. Educational Administration and Supervision, September, 1925.

⁵ Many of the data used in this report were gathered by G. W. Rosenlof, who served as chairman of the "Committee on Education" in the study of Teachers College curricula which was part of the work of the major course in Normal School Education at Teachers College, Columbia University, 1925-26.

TABLE I

The Number of Teachers Colleges Offering Various "Required" Courses in Education and Psychology for Varying Amounts of Credit
From a selected list of twenty-five teachers colleges offering four year curricula for intermediate teachers, 1925-26

	Number of semester hours of credit														
Subjects	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	12	15	Total		
Introduction to teaching or education	..	..	8	3	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	12		
Principles of teaching or education	..	..	13	3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	16		
Observation or Observation studies	2	1	5	2	1	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	12		
Practice teaching I & II.. ..	..	..	3	0	1	3	3	7	1	2	1	2	23		
Room teaching III.. ..	..	..	1	1	0	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	3		
Apprentice teaching.....	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1		
Conferences	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1		
Classroom management....	..	..	7	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	7		
Administration and supervision	..	..	1	1	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	3		
Supervision	..	..	3	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4		
Administration	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1		
Ethics of profession.....	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1		
General methods	..	1	3	1	1	2	..	..	..	..	..	..	8		
Special methods	..	1	2	1	3	1	..	..	2	1	2	1	14		
Project method	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1		
Curriculum	..	..	2	3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5		
History of education.....	..	1	3	4	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	8		
History of education in United States	..	..	4	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5		
Current educational thought	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1		
Philosophy of education.. ..	..	..	1	1	1	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	4		
Public school system and school law	..	..	1	2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3		
Child and his school.....	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1		
Civic education	..	3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3		
General psychology	..	9	..	2	..	2	..	..	..	..	..	..	13		
Educational psychology....	..	..	17	7	2	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	22		
Child psychology	..	..	5	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	6		
Psychology of childhood.. ..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1		
Psychology of elementary school subjects	..	..	1	3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4		
Psychology of high school subjects	..	..	1	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2		
Educational measurements ..	..	3	5	1	..	1	..	1	..	..	..	..	11		
Mental measurements.....	..	1	2	2	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	6		
Psychology of individual differences	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1		
Heredity and education....	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1		
Educational hygiene.....	..	1	3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4		
Educational sociology.....	..	..	3	2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5		
Educational biology	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1		
Psychology of speech.....	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1		

The table should be read as follows: Introduction to teaching or education is offered for 3 hours credit in 8 different schools, for 4 hours credit in 3 different schools, and for 6 hours in one school, making a total of 12 schools requiring such a course.

This was done, however, in order to make the report cover the actual situation for the present year.¹

Table 1 on page 60 shows very convincingly the diversity of *required* offerings in education and psychology and the lack of agreement in the amount of credit to be offered for each course.

It will be noticed that it was necessary to use 23 classifications to include the *required* courses in education in these teachers colleges. The list would have been much longer if the optional courses had been listed. From the distributions given in Table I, it is evident that the only subjects in education which are required in practically all teachers colleges are practice teaching and educational psychology. The following subjects are required in half or more of these colleges: principles of teaching or of education, special methods, general psychology, history of education (general or in U. S.), introduction to teaching or to education, observation and educational measurements. About one third of the colleges require general methods and classroom management.

There is very little agreement in practice with regard to the placement of these required courses. This can be seen by reference to the distributions in Table II.

TABLE II

The Year-Placement of Required Courses in Education for Elementary Teachers in Twenty-five Teachers Colleges, 1925-26

Name of course	Per cent of required courses that are offered in each year			
	1st Year	2d Year	3d Year	4th Year
Practice teaching I	5	82	..	13
Practice teaching II	..	42	11	47
Educational psychology	40	30	30	..
Principles of teaching or education....	50	31	19	..
Special methods	38	44	6	12
General psychology	85	..	15	..
History of education.....	..	23	46	31
Introduction to teaching or education...	100	..	..	..
Observation	46	27	9	18
Educational measurements.....	..	55	36	9
General methods	50	13	12	25
Classroom management	14	71	..	15

¹ The list of schools used follows: Arkansas State Teachers Colleges, Conway, Arkansas; Fresno State Teachers College, Fresno, California; San Jose State Teachers College, San Jose, California; Colorado State Teachers College, Greeley, Colorado; Western State Teachers College, Gunnison, Colorado; Western Illinois State Teachers College, Macomb, Illinois; Eastern Kentucky State Normal School, Richmond, Kentucky; State Normal School, Natchitoches, Louisiana; State Teachers College, Kirksville, Missouri; Central Missouri State Teachers College, Warrensburg, Missouri; Southeast Missouri State Teachers College, Cape Girardeau, Missouri; Southwest Missouri State Teachers College, Springfield, Missouri; State Teachers College and Normal School, Kearney, Nebraska; East North Carolina Teachers College, Greenville, North Carolina; State Teachers College, Mayville, North Dakota; State Teachers College, Valley City, North Dakota; Southern State Normal School, Springfield, South Dakota; Eastern State Normal School, Madison, South Dakota; Middle Tennessee Normal School, Murfreesboro, Tennessee; West Tennessee Normal School, Memphis, Tennessee; North Texas State Teachers College, Denton, Texas; Southwest Texas State Teachers College, San Marcos, Texas; State Teachers College, Fredericksburg, Virginia; State Teachers College, Farmville, Virginia; Washington State Normal School, Bellingham, Washington.

This table shows that practice is consistent in placing the introductory courses in the first year, and the practice teaching work in the second and fourth years. It is interesting to note the courses in which there is an agreement of fifty percent or more of the colleges in the placement of a subject.

The two most discouraging elements in any attempt to study the curricula of teachers colleges are the variations in titles for the same courses and the even greater variations in the content of courses with the same title. In order to know accurately what is now being taught in the various courses in education in teachers colleges it would be necessary to have detailed syllabi and lecture notes of each course, and even these should be checked by visiting the classes. Such a study was obviously impossible at this time. In attempting to get the content elements for the several courses the descriptive statements which appeared in the catalogs were used. This material is much more reliable now than it was a few years ago because of the concerted effort that all colleges are making to have the catalogs present accurate descriptions of the courses that are actually taught. One illustration of the difficulties mentioned will be found in the following catalog descriptions of three courses in principles of education as given in three teachers colleges.¹

1. "Principles of Education (four hours). Considers the learning process and the teaching process in their relation to the principles of psychology. Includes aims of education, laws of learning, individual differences, the selection and organization of subject-matter, the technique of the recitation, supervision of study and mental hygiene." (Note: This school also requires a course in Educational Psychology.)

2. "Principles of Education (four hours). A study of the underlying principles of educational theory and practice with special emphasis upon secondary school problems. A study is made of secondary education in relation to elementary and higher education. The aims and functions of the American high school are studied in relation to students, curricula, and present social conditions."

3. "Principles of Education (three hours). A biological view of education, interpreting the details of educational theory and practice and development of various educational values. Genetic methods are used to elicit present conditions and practices. The development of education, ideas of value, educative aims, and the agencies of mental and moral development."

The following tabulation of the topics which are listed in the descriptions of the sixteen courses in principles of teaching or principles of education shows only four which are mentioned by five or more colleges. These four are: (1) fundamental principles of teaching and methods; (2) applications of the principles; (3) observation, and (4) aims in education. If these topics were not so general in nature, it is probable that there

¹ Gunnison, Colorado; Valley City, N. D.; Denton, Texas.

would not have been even this slight agreement. None of the teachers colleges studied requires both principles of teaching and principles of education. Before either is required, its relation to other courses in education should be determined and the present duplication of topics should be reduced. Many of the topics now taught in these courses may be placed as appropriately in other courses, such as introduction to education, educational psychology, classroom management, or in the professionalized subject-matter courses. If courses are composed of elements which are taken from several other courses, or which are as appropriate in other courses they must have a very clearly defined function to perform in order to justify their existence. The descriptions of these courses in principles of education do not show any agreement upon this point. In some instances they are clearly courses furnishing foundation material for other professionalized courses; in others they are second courses in introduction to teaching given at the beginning of the senior college, while in others they are summarizing and coordinating courses.

Other courses in education which are subject to the same limitations and which are in other ways similar to the courses just discussed, are introduction to teaching and introduction to education. These courses have been more recently introduced, which may account for the even greater lack of agreement in content and function which exists. One or the other of these courses was required in twelve schools, and only two topics appeared in as many as half of the schools. The following listing of topics included in these twelve courses shows their classifications into several fields and also the number of times each topic was mentioned.

1. General topics considered as introductory to the whole field of education.

- Teaching as a profession (2)
- Problems met in education today (6)
- Orienting student in field of education (2)
- Survey of work of teacher (2)
- Objectives of education (6)
- Clear notions of the field of education (3)
- Results of education (4)
- Fitness of student for educational service (1)
- Types of teaching service (1)
- Aiding student in choice of field (1)
- Educational systems (1)
- Professional growth of teachers (1)
- General and specific qualifications (3)
- Educational terminology (1)
- Preparation for later specialization (1)

2. Administration and Supervision.

- Curriculum (2)
- The school-board (1)
- School architecture (1)
- School organization (1)

- Junior high school (1)
- Extension of school activities (1)
- School law (1)
- Yard and building organization (1)

3. School and Classroom Management.

- Classroom management (2)
- Daily program (2)
- Play activities (1)
- School discipline (1)
- Assignments (1)
- First day of school (1)
- Intermissions (1)
- Lines and drills (1)
- Attendance (1)
- Punishments (1)
- Grading and promotion (1)

4. Educational Psychology and Measurements.

- Nature of learning and teaching processes (2)
- Nature of mind-original capacities (2)
- Treating individual differences (2)
- Standard tests (2)
- Habit formation (1)
- Interest (1)
- Attention (1)

5. Principles of Teaching—Methods.

- Principles of pedagogy (2)
- Study habits (1)
- Methods in education or of teaching (3)

6. Miscellaneous.

- Schools of other countries and their contributions (1)
- Health education (1)
- Moral questions (1)

The amount of overlapping between these two introductory courses and the other courses in education, which this list shows, is a matter for serious consideration when it occurs in curricula already "overcrowded." The titles of these courses, and the fact that they are offered in the first year in all these schools, would indicate that there is agreement regarding their principal function—orientation of the students in professional schools for teachers. What effect will the treatment of topics in such an introductory course have upon courses which have heretofore been responsible for those topics? Will these courses repeat the topics which have been presented in the orienting courses; will they substitute other topics, or will they shorten the time formerly given to the courses? These three options are very important in the future development of curricula for the preparation of teachers, and are involved, to a greater or less degree, in all of the required courses in education.

Some of the more outstanding facts about each of the frequently required courses in education which were evident from the study of the catalog announcements are given without comment at this point.

Practice teaching—The amount of practice teaching required varies from three quarter hours in one school to eighteen quarter hours in another. The median amount of credit given to practice teaching is eight and one quarter semester hours. There is general agreement that practice teaching should come in the second year. This is, of course, due to the fact that such a large proportion of the students in teachers colleges complete only a two-year course. Four teachers colleges of the group studied require practice teaching in both the second and fourth years. In these cases there is not a very clear statement of the principal functions of the second course.

The general tendency in all practice teaching work in these colleges is to emphasize the following elements: (1) preliminary observation by the student of teaching done by supervisors; (2) careful lesson planning; (3) selection and organization of subject-matter; (4) critical discussion with the supervisors and critic teachers both before and after teaching; (5) practice teaching; and (6) group conferences.

Special methods—There are two distinct types of special methods courses. The first attempts to provide a composite course which assumes responsibility in one course for the special methods in all subjects. The second type is a course offered in connection with each of the subject-matter fields, for example, "Special methods in intermediate grade arithmetic," or "The teaching of English in intermediate grades."

The most frequently mentioned topics in these courses in special methods are: (1) application of psychological principles; (2) methods of teaching subjects with reference to the preadolescent child; (3) utilizing original tendencies and environment; (4) historical development of subject-matter; (5) place of subject-matter in the curriculum; (6) organization of subject-matter; (7) selected references on teaching the various subjects; and (8) the teacher's relation to the child. Only four of the schools show in their catalogs that they are trying to introduce this special methods material into the regular subject-matter courses.

General methods—About one third of the teachers colleges now give courses in general methods. These courses are, in most instances, either the first type of special methods course with a different name or a duplication of the work of such courses as introduction to teaching or educational psychology or principles of teaching. Some of the most frequently discussed topics are: (1) problems of instruction in the intermediate grades; (2) materials and devices for teaching subjects; (3) discussion of current literature in the field; (4) best means of adapting materials and subject-matter to specific grades and to individuals; (5) characteristics of children; (6) the project as a method; (7) aims of education; and (8) purpose, content, and technique of instruction.

History of education—The two most noticeable facts about history of

education are: (1) the tendencies to restrict the course to the third or fourth year of the four-year course and omit it entirely from the two-year course; and (2) the substitution of "History of Education in the United States," for the more general history of education.

Classroom management—This course is offered in practically all the teachers colleges but required in less than a third of them. The topics usually included in this course are now as vital and important as they ever were. The decrease in number of schools requiring it has been caused by the distribution of many of its topics to introduction to teaching, educational psychology, the professionalized subject-matter courses and the more recently organized courses in observation and participation.

Psychology—A detailed study of the psychology courses in teachers colleges was not made at this time because a thorough investigation of their content and functions is now being made by a graduate student at teachers college. It will suffice for the present to give a few facts and conclusions about the psychology courses in these twenty-five teachers colleges. Fourteen of the schools require both an introductory or general course in psychology and a course in educational psychology. Nine schools require one course in educational psychology and no introductory course in psychology. Nineteen of the schools require two or more courses in psychology, while seven of these require introductory psychology, educational psychology, and psychology of childhood.

Mental measurements and educational tests—These courses are usually required of third and fourth-year students. The average amount of credit given to each of these courses is about four semester hours. This would imply that both courses are most frequently intended for regular classroom teachers instead of specialists in the field of measurements.

None of the other courses in education were required by enough schools to justify including them in this discussion of present practice.

Before making any proposals concerning the education courses for a teachers college, some general statements should be made concerning the amount, the kind, and the arrangement of the offerings in education.

1. In teachers colleges the courses in education deal with methods and techniques of teaching, but make almost no addition to the subject-matter to be taught. In any curriculum, the time spent in perfecting the methods and techniques of presenting elementary school subjects decreases to that extent the time available for the study of additional collegiate subject-matter courses.

2. Since education courses are the most recently developed of the courses in our teachers colleges, they must be on the defensive and justify any time given to them by students who expect to teach. This justification must be made in terms of measured results. These measurements must show, in no uncertain terms, that students who have had a given amount of work in education or who have taken certain courses in education, *do better teaching* than students who have not had such courses in education, but who have had additional courses in such fields as English, history,

sociology, art, or modern languages. These measurements must also show which type of preparation is conducive to the most rapid and most prolonged professional growth on the part of the teacher while in service. The responsibility rests more heavily upon the advocates of education courses to furnish this proof of value, than upon the teachers of the more established subject-matter fields.

3. There seems to be greater probability of enriching a teacher's classroom instruction, broadening his interests, and increasing his influence and prestige in the community by giving him a more thorough and comprehensive grasp of the subjects usually studied in college than by giving him an immediate mastery of the classroom skills and the required minimum of subject-matter for instruction. Both kinds of training are obviously desirable and the extent to which one or the other should be emphasized must be determined.

4. As the science of education is developed in the research departments of our universities, it tends to encourage specialization and the multiplication of courses. This is desirable in schools where students are prepared to conduct further researches or to teach special phases of education, such as history of education or educational psychology in teachers colleges. This specialization and multiplication of courses may be very undesirable when it finds its way into the curricula of teachers colleges. Even though, at first, these new courses may not be required, they will be taken by some students, and for that number, at least, they prevent an equal amount of time from being spent on other subjects, which may not be studied because of "lack of time."

5. The plan of professionalizing the subject-matter courses in our teachers colleges must be put to severe experimental tests; if it is justified, as all of its advocates are sure that it will be, its adoption by teachers colleges will make radical changes in the courses in education in these schools. If English, history, mathematics, and all other subjects of instruction in teachers colleges are expected to include the essential elements in the history of that subject's development, the applications of educational psychology to the teaching of that subject in the various grades, the giving and interpretation of tests and measures of that subject, the most successful methods and devices for teaching that subject at different grade levels, and other such professional elements related to that field, there must necessarily be a rearrangement of courses in education. Until such professionalization of subject-matter is proved to be either impossible or undesirable, there are enough logical arguments in its favor to justify many teachers colleges in making an earnest attempt to put it into practice and *watch* results.

In the light of the preceding generalization, the following proposals are made for the required courses in education for a teachers college preparing teachers for the intermediate grades. With the necessary modification due to differentiated curricula, these courses would suffice for the preparation of teachers for any positions in the elementary schools.

These proposals are made upon the following assumptions: that teachers in the elementary schools are today in need of additional subject-matter; that subject-matter may be obtained in professionalized courses; that specialized courses in education will be offered for students who intend to specialize in particular fields of work; and that *education courses will not be responsible for any elements which may reasonably be expected to belong to the professional treatment of the subject-matter courses.*

These proposals also recognize the fact that the majority of students preparing to teach in the elementary schools will stop, at least temporarily, at the end of the second year. These students are more or less experienced teachers when they return for further work and should then be separated for instructional purposes from other juniors and seniors who have not actually taught.

Proposed required courses in education in teachers colleges for the preparation of teachers for the elementary schools. (With particular reference to intermediate grades.)

Group A—Students who elect to complete four years of work before teaching. (Not entitled to certificate at end of two years.)

Group B—Students who expect to teach at close of second year.

Group	Subject	Number of Quarter Hours*	Quarter Offered
A & B	<i>First Year</i>		
	Introduction to teaching.....	2	1st
	Elementary educational statistics and measurements	3	2d
	Educational psychology	3	3d
B	<i>Second Year</i>		
	Classroom procedures	2	1st
	Practice teaching	8	2d
	History and principles of education....	3	3d
A	<i>Fourth Year</i>		
	Classroom procedures	2	1st
	Practice teaching	8	2d
	History and principles of education....	3	3d
B	Observation and specialization practice, supervision or experimental teaching..	4	any
Total		A	
		B	
		21	
		25	

*Multiply by two-thirds to reduce to semester hours.

Some of the reasons for this arrangement of courses will be given very briefly. Statements of the principal purposes of the courses will be given since their positions in a curriculum depend upon them. The statements of these purposes will include some of the most important topics to be covered in the courses.

1. Introduction to teaching (or education)

a. Principal purposes:

- (1) To orient students in the field of education.
- (2) To give a foundation for the work of a professional school.
- (3) To serve as the basis for selecting a field for special work.
- (4) To introduce students to the training school.

b. Reason for place in the curriculum:

- (1) If such a course is offered it must be placed as early as possible in order to serve its purposes.

2. Elementary educational statistics and measurements

a. Principal purposes:

- (1) To equip students with an understanding of terms and procedures in elementary statistics.
- (2) To give general principles of measurement—both mental and educational. (No responsibility for any work with tests of specific subjects which are to be given in professionalized subject-matter courses. To acquaint students with the use and construction of newer types of examination.)
- (3) To give the principles of conducting simple educational experiments.

b. Reason for place in the curriculum:

- (1) It contains material needed in all professionalized courses and in educational psychology.

3. Educational psychology

a. Principal purposes:

- (1) To be a "service course" for all subject-matter departments. It should stress particularly such elements as: original nature, the laws of learning, individual differences, emotional elements in learning, and other topics which can and will be *used* by teachers in the various subject-matter courses.
- (2) To give prospective teachers an intelligent interest in children, their development, interests, and methods of work. (Supplemented by observations of children in the training school.)

b. Reasons for place in the curriculum:

- (1) Time is provided to permit a course in biology to precede this course if desired.
- (2) There is no provision for a preliminary course in *general psychology*. This course is disappearing from teachers college curricula since it is not of practical value to teachers, and has not been essential to the understanding of educational psychology.
- (3) Because of its service nature, it should come as early as feasible.

4. Classroom procedures

a. Principal purposes:

- (1) To unify the various "professionalized treatments" as given in the various subjects, and bring them all to bear on a "classroom unit."
- (2) To give students those elements of classroom management, such as: work of first day, daily programs, discipline, supervision of study, art of questioning, keeping records, and such other topics as are not cared for in professionalized courses.
- (3) To provide for observation and graded participation in the training school grades in which students expect to teach.

b. Reasons for place in the curriculum:

- (1) It provides material needed for effective practice teaching.
- (2) It provides for a preliminary acquaintance with the problems of the class which the student is to teach.

5. Practice teaching

a. Principal purposes:

- (1) To provide teachers with a reasonable degree of proficiency in the art of teaching. It will involve observation, graded participation, practice teaching under supervision, and "responsible room teaching."
- (2) To afford practice in the selection and presentation of materials for instruction as well as participation in the other activities which usually attend classroom teaching.

b. Reasons for place in the curriculum:

- (1) It is placed as late in the course as possible (both for groups A and B) in order that the prospective teacher may *practice*, under supervision, as much of her professional equipment as possible.

6. History and principles of education

a. Principal purpose:

- (1) To serve as a summarizing and coördinating course for the various theories and methods presented in other courses. (Only the more significant general developments in the history of education will be treated in order that teachers may be informed about the growth of their profession. None of the elements which may be used as professionalized subject-matter in the several subjects will be treated.)

b. Reasons for place in the curriculum:

- (1) It is the only logical place for a course which is to summarize and coördinate the work of the curriculum.

7. Observation and specialized practice teaching

a. Principal purposes:

- (1) To give to Group B students (experienced teachers who have had supervised practice teaching) a connection with the training school in order that they may observe recent developments in methods, plans of organization, and other teaching practices.
- (2) To furnish experienced teachers the opportunity to do a special piece of teaching, conduct a specific educational experiment, or have opportunity to do supervision under supervision.

b. Reasons for place in the curriculum:

- (1) It should come late in the course in order to enable the student to utilize the additional training obtained during the third and fourth years of college work.
- (2) It should come late in the course because, for students in Group B, this course must serve as their summarizing and coördinating course for the last two years of work.

With this brief description it is hoped that the most important reason of all for this arrangement of courses in education, and consequently, for the very sharp cut in the amount of work required in education will be apparent. It is hoped that this plan, if put into operation, will *force* the various teachers of subject-matter fields to professionalize their courses. Then, and not until then, will the principle of professionalized subject-matter be given a fair trial under favorable conditions. Until this is done, it will be impossible to test or measure the value of this significant theory which, if proved to be valid, will result in such radical changes in curricula for the preparation of teachers.

THE BASIS AND PRINCIPLES OF CURRICULUM CONSTRUCTION FOR STATE TEACHERS COLLEGES

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In speaking before this group today I shall confine myself to a consideration of the administrative aspects of the curriculum and exclude a consideration of the content of subject units within the curriculum. I do this for two reasons. First, this audience deals with curriculum administration rather than with curriculum content. Second, in order to determine the detailed content of the subjects of a curriculum it is necessary to use a highly refined technic which is provided in a laboratory rather than in the administrator's office.

In describing the basis of curriculum construction for state teachers colleges, I shall rely upon a parallel in business procedure.

When a business organization is deciding its policies concerning the production of manufactured commodities, good business procedure demands first of all that it make a market analysis, even though such an analysis is frequently carried out at great pains and expense. A manufacturing organization studies its markets to learn where its goods can best be placed, to ascertain what goods are in greatest demand, and to determine in what lines there is an oversupply. On the basis of this analysis, the organization reaches a decision as to the production policies of its manufacturing plant. This is good business procedure because profits are seriously endangered if lines are manufactured for which there is no market, or if some market in which there is a great demand for a line is not supplied.

It appears to me that in settling the question of a curriculum for teachers colleges the parallel holds very closely; and the procedure for curriculum construction runs somewhat in the following fashion. In the first place, teacher-training institutions should be considered in state units, since

teaching is a state function. The analysis of the teaching personnel and positions in a state unit should constitute the first step. The reason for such an analysis—which we may call a market analysis—is this. It is the function of the teacher-training institutions in a state to provide the different classes of teachers for that state. Such an analysis will be made in a way that will reveal the demands for different kinds of teachers. It will disclose the average number of teachers needed over a period of years and point out any increasing or decreasing trend in these numbers. It will show the number of high school teachers of various kinds, of junior high school teachers, rural teachers, and so forth. It will show the movement of teachers from other states, and from the state under consideration to neighboring states.

Such an analysis of the potential market of teacher-training agencies will consider the factors that influence teachers in deciding to attach themselves to these different types of positions. Such factors as the relative prestige of positions and differences in salary, teaching load, and length of the teaching day will be considered. This will give both a quantitative and a qualitative analysis of the market, both the numbers needed and the relative attractiveness of different types of positions.

When this analysis has been made it is possible to decide upon the number of teachers to be trained, but if we are to have any control over distribution it is necessary that two supplementary activities be carried on. In the first place, qualitative differences between positions must be equalized as nearly as possible so that teachers with the same preparation and ability will be able to take whatever kind of position they are best fitted for. At present, the prestige of high school positions based on differentials in salary, teaching load, and the length of the school day works against the needs of other divisions of the school system. These differences must be reduced if we are to have any control over the teaching supply. In the second place, it is important that the pledging of students who enter state institutions be strictly administered so that a reasonable amount of the graduates' experience will be devoted to the schools of the state in which they receive their education. If state teachers colleges and other training agencies could control these two factors the problems of supplying the market would be considerably simplified.

In short, then, an analysis of the teaching needs of the state is the first step in the determination of curricula for teacher-training institutions.

When the United States Steel Corporation, or any other large organization using careful business methods, has made a market analysis, its next step is to study the facilities of each of its plants for manufacturing the product. It will consider the proximity of the plant to the raw materials, the kind of machinery, the personnel of its trained workers, and the types of product that it has been manufacturing up to the present time. That is to say, it will make a plant analysis.

Similarly, it appears to me that within the state unit the teacher-training institutions of the state should be surveyed in a manner parallel to that

of a business organization. If these institutions are all centralized under one state board, the task is relatively easy. If they are not so organized, then educational statesmanship requires the establishment of a formal or informal council composed of representatives of the teacher-training institutions and the public. The function of this council would be to make the foregoing market analysis and the subsequent plant analysis. The outcome of such a council would be a settling of the specific functions of each teacher-training institution. Once the number of rural school-teachers needed in the state is known, the training of these teachers should be provided for by allocating them to the different schools upon the basis of proximity to students and facilities already possessed or easily furnished. In the same way the number of elementary school teachers should be allocated; and this process should be continued until the market has been supplied.

There are certain factors that operate in connection with schools which do not operate in business. If the United States Steel Corporation decides upon the production policies of any plant, we may be quite certain that this plant will do what is decided upon. In the teacher-training situation, however, there is great local autonomy, and the desires of local presidents, faculties, and communities tend to cut across any businesslike management of the state unit of teacher-training institutions. Unfortunately, whenever local interests and desires enter strongly into a decision as to the kind of teachers to be trained in a given institution, a state-wide policy for meeting state needs is ruined. It cannot be carried out.

In some states a difficulty of another sort is found. There are not enough teacher-training institutions to meet the needs of the market. The citizens of the state have not been made conscious of the demands of the market or of the necessity of meeting those demands. It therefore becomes the business of the council to which I have referred to assist in educating the citizens to the necessity for providing adequate facilities.

Such a state-wide policy should result in a program that has been agreed upon by representatives of all the institutions involved; and this program should allocate to the different institutions the task of supplying a determined proportion of the different kinds of teachers needed. This proportion should be based, as has been said above, upon the factors already considered. What the proportion for each institution should be cannot be settled beforehand. Different states may not agree upon the principles of distribution or of proportion. Just as in business, different policy boards will have different methods of apportionment. The important consideration is not so much the securing of a correct method of apportionment as it is to secure *some* method of apportionment. If the method is wrong, it will eventually correct itself provided the administrators are wise and intelligent. The essential thing is to settle upon a policy which can be used for a designated period.

Whether all schools should train a few of all kinds of teachers, or

whether certain institutions should specialize on certain kinds, is again a matter of state policy.

It is safe to leave the decision concerning apportionment to any council such as I have mentioned provided the council is composed of people who have a state-wide rather than a local view of the teaching market. Obviously, if local considerations predominate, the activities of a council will be known to be futile before deliberations begin.

When lines of production have been established, it then becomes the business of those charged with the production of teachers to see that the facilities necessary for efficient production are provided. Such a policy of development settled upon beforehand will tend to improve the equipment and the personnel of each institution with a view to the better training of the kinds of teachers that are allotted to it. As time goes on, a settled policy, such as has been described, will make the training in each institution more and more efficient with a minimum amount of expenditure.

When the types of teachers that are to be trained in an institution are decided upon and the facilities are on the way to being provided, the problem of constructing curricula for each of these types emerges. At the present time all that can be done is for the administering body to see that the proper kind of training is given in terms of subject units. The high school teacher of English, for instance, will obviously need to pursue such and such courses. A teacher of the elementary school must likewise follow certain courses. At this time these subjects are determined largely upon the basis of best practice and consensus; but the content of each of these courses is a matter for much more technical consideration than can now be given to it by any state unit of teacher-training institutions.

In brief and in conclusion, the basis for the determination of the curricula of teachers colleges is the following: First, the state must be considered as a unit. Second, an analysis of the teacher needs of the state must be made, and this analysis must involve a consideration of the factors which disturb the allocation of teachers and keep them from "staying put" in an impersonal manner after they have been trained for the positions. Third, the teacher-training facilities of the state must be considered as a unit. The institutions must be studied with a view to determining their adequacy for training the teachers which the market demands. This must be settled in the light of state-wide considerations rather than factors of local pride and desires. Fourth, when these factors have been considered and their operations have been decided upon, the best curricula for the training of the specified types of teachers will for the present be made upon the basis of the best current practice.

At this time the curriculum problems of the state teacher-training institutions are not problems of content. They are problems of statesmanlike administration, which could be obtained by a substitution of a state-wide for a local point of view.

THE CURRICULUM OF THE TEACHERS COLLEGE

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The present curricula of teacher-training institutions can be shown by reference to the catalogs of these institutions to be in a very chaotic condition. In a recent study of the curriculum required for the training of kindergarten-primary teachers, Charles H. Thompson found that the catalogs of fifty-five institutions which he studied mentioned seventy-nine different subjects of instruction as units in their kindergarten-primary curricula. The average number of subjects per institution was nineteen and one half. The range was from thirteen to thirty-one. Mr. Thompson found that there were eighteen different general subjects prescribed. By general subject he meant such a course as English composition, which is evidently introduced for the purpose of giving the student general training for personal improvement rather than specific professional training. Mr. Thompson found fourteen general professional subjects, such as psychology and history of education, twenty-one special school subjects, such as geography and arithmetic, and twenty-six special professional subjects, such as music, children's literature, and industrial art designed as special training courses for kindergarten-primary teachers.

What Mr. Thompson found for the kindergarten-primary teachers is paralleled by a similar diversity of offerings in each of the fields of normal training.

Such obvious groping for a well-ordered curriculum reveals the fact that teacher-training institutions have not made an adequate analysis of their duties or of the needs of their students. Or putting the matter in other terms, we may say that there is much need of a careful study of curriculum problems if the teacher-training institutions are to define their relations to other institutions of learning and to society as a whole.

A preliminary analysis may be suggested by pointing out several of the specific problems which confront the teachers colleges. The first of these problems arises from the necessity of defining the relation of so-called cultural courses to professional courses. A large number of general courses are now given in the interests of personal culture. These are located in the curriculum of the student at various levels. Sometimes they are regarded as introductory to the professional courses and are introduced in the first year. In many instances the general courses are postponed and offered only to those students who devote more than two years to their training. It is in the four-year teachers' colleges that postponement of the general courses until the junior or senior years most frequently occurs. The reason for this is entirely evident. The students who find it necessary for economic reasons to take a short course prefer to have the early years of their training made up, as largely as possible, of courses that will prepare them directly to secure a position. If a given student makes up his mind in the course of his schooling to go on for the third and fourth years, he will be much less insistent about professional courses and much

more willing to devote himself to the type of courses common in arts colleges.

With regard to the relation of cultural and professional courses there are accordingly two questions. The first is the question of the amount of general training which shall be given, and the second is the problem of its location in the curriculum.

Teacher-training institutions have of late been calling themselves colleges and have been asking for that type of recognition in the educational world which attaches to classification as a college. By using the name college the teacher-training institutions have brought themselves into competition, or at least into relation, with a group of institutions which emphasize general education as their chief function. The college of liberal arts in its most approved form does not attempt to give professional training in any particular line but does aim to give those general subjects which are supposed to be appropriate parts of preparation for any of the later activities upon which the student may enter. In fact, many of the colleges of liberal arts boast of their complete separation from practical lines of training.

There is a growing tendency even in the arts colleges to introduce certain professional opportunities in the last two years of their curricula, but these professional opportunities are thought of as based upon complete, or fairly complete, groups of courses which are general in character. When, now, the teacher-training institutions enter this field of general education and try as colleges to readjust the curriculum so as to serve a professional purpose in the first two years, difficulties arise which the non-professional colleges escape even when they import a few practical electives in their upper years.

Some of the teachers colleges have gone so far as frankly to recognize the antithesis between their liberal arts division and their professional division. They carry on a college course of the ordinary type, a liberal arts curriculum parallel with the teacher-training curriculum which is a mixture of an arts curriculum and a professional curriculum. This combination in the teacher-training curricula has proved to be very distracting to both interests. The funds which the state can afford to give the state teachers colleges ought to be used for the purposes for which the state organized this particular type of institution. Where a college of liberal arts has been organized within a teachers college, it generally consumes resources that the state intended to be used for another type of training.

The teacher-training institutions are unclear in their relations to general education for another reason. The high school is an institution devoted largely to general cultural training. Up to a recent period the normal schools and teachers colleges have given very little attention to the high school. Historically, the normal schools were totally unrelated to the high schools. At the present time, though a high-school training is required for admission, there is very little coordination between the courses offered in the high school and those offered in the teacher-training institutions.

One may go even farther and point out that the teachers colleges have contributed very little material of instruction and have exercised very little scientific control over either the high schools or the elementary schools. The number of textbooks that have been written for the elementary school and for the high school by members of teachers college faculties is very small indeed, and the number of scientific studies of education made by the members of these faculties does not compare with the number of such studies that have been made by university faculties or agencies not engaged in the training of teachers.

The Canadian method of dealing with cultural or general education and its relation to teacher training is a relatively simple one. The Canadians do not include in their normal training institutions any of the broadening courses that are intended for a general education. General education is completed in the secondary schools and in the colleges. It is the function of the normal-training institutions to give only professional courses. I am not here to advocate the adoption of the Canadian method of dealing with the relation which I have been discussing. I merely cite the experience of our neighbor across the border to bring out as clearly as I can the contrast between general training and professional training.

It would perhaps be more in keeping with the proprieties for me to be content with a statement of the problem. It certainly is not my place to do more than suggest one of the possible adjustments of cultural demands to professional demands. I am firmly of the opinion that the best way to adjust such matters is to face them frankly and give each of the competing types of courses a place and a recognized standing.

If general courses are to be offered at all, they ought to be arranged in an appropriate sequence, and they ought to be so organized that they constitute a system of their own. They certainly ought not to trespass on the professional curriculum by crowding out necessary professional courses or by being assembled in excessive numbers in the last two years of a four-year period.

In like fashion the professional courses should be arranged in a proper sequence, and this sequence should be carried throughout the period of practical training. If the professional sequence and the cultural sequence get into competition there is only one legitimate way of solving the difficulty. That is by giving the professional sequence the right of way. Such an arrangement would also have the advantage of helping other institutions of higher learning to know how far students taking transfers really had gone in both the general and the professional sequences.

A second general problem which confronts the teacher-training institutions is that of determining the content which is appropriate to either the general sequence of courses or the special sequence that prepares the student for his professional work. The mixed array of courses which was described in an earlier paragraph as drawn from the catalogs of fifty-five teacher-training institutions makes it perfectly clear that there is no agree-

ment at the present time among the organizers of teacher-training institutions with regard to the subjects that should be required.

Let us take two or three concrete illustrations of the points on which there is impressive disagreement. A number of teacher-training institutions have found it highly desirable to begin the professional work of their institutions by giving a general introductory course. This introductory course is organized on the theory that very few freshmen who enter the teachers college realize what is the structure of public schools and what are the problems which the teachers in these schools have to confront. This introductory course has been growing in favor in recent years as is shown by the fact that a number of books have appeared in rapid succession designed to serve as textbooks for such a course. While this course is accepted by a number of institutions, there are, on the other hand, some people who object strenuously to any kind of a broad introductory course. They say that a broad survey is not suitable because it runs over all sorts of educational problems in a superficial way and destroys the enthusiasm of the students for later courses in which the topics are discussed in detail.

Let us take another example. The history of education used to be regarded as the best course to be used in introducing students to the professional study of education. Experience showed, however, that the history of education was barren of results in the experience of most teachers, and so in recent years the history of education has been gradually disappearing from the curriculum of teacher-training institutions. If it remains at all, it is an elective course offered late in the student's career. The companion course to the history of education was the course in psychology, and in the early days this course was a general course in psychology, dealing with the principles of mental life as those principles can be discovered by an analysis of adult experience. Of late there have been numerous instances in which general psychology has been superseded by educational psychology. Still another solution of the psychology problem is that recommended by Professor Bagley. Professor Bagley recommends a brief course in psychology in the first year for the purpose of giving the student command of certain terminologies, which are regarded as necessary for later study. General psychology, educational psychology, and psychology for terminology are all to be found in American teacher-training institutions competing with one another because no one seems to know which is best. Furthermore, courses in psychology are to be found in practically every level of the curriculum from the first term of the freshman year to the last term of the fourth year.

Enough has been said with reference to typical professional courses to make it clear that there is wide disagreement with regard to the content which should be covered in a professional sequence.

The reason why this difficulty appears is fairly obvious on closer examination. There is no definite scientifically verified knowledge at the present time in the possession of teacher-training institutions with regard

to the items of knowledge and experience which are actually required to train a competent teacher. Nobody has made a detailed and complete analysis of the teacher's duties, and there can be no final and satisfactory determination of the training which will prepare one for duties which are themselves uncataloged and unclassified. It will be necessary, before teachers colleges can determine with any high degree of certainty what ought to be included in their professional sequences, to determine what are the essential requirements of proficient performance in the teaching profession. The problem of determining by careful systematic studies the duties and qualifications of teachers is therefore a problem which should be attacked at once by those who are interested in the professional courses. It may be remarked that such an analytical study will throw much light on the question which was raised earlier in this paper, the question of the amount of general or cultural training which is essential. An analysis of the teacher's duties is from every point of view a study of the first importance to all who deal with the preparation of teachers.

A third problem which grows directly out of the foregoing discussion is the problem of determining what shall be required of different groups of teachers-in-training in order to prepare them for service in the special part of the school system in which they intend to teach. It is rapidly coming to be the accepted belief of those who train teachers that the education of a person who is going to be a primary teacher should be somewhat different from the education of another person who is going to teach in the upper grades. Teachers colleges are of late claiming the right to prepare the junior high school teachers and some of them are sending their students into the high schools of the state. It is evident that the training of a high-school teacher cannot be the same as the training of a teacher in the lower grades. Here we have all the difficulties that attend the determination of the content of the teacher-training program complicated by the further necessity of selecting those phases of professional training and those phases of general training which are appropriate to the different particular branches of the profession.

The administration of specialized curricula is further involved because of the fact that a great many students do not know in the beginning of their careers which type of teaching position they prefer and for which they wish to prepare. The professional schools must therefore prepare for changes in the student's program when this program is partly finished. There is always a loss of time and a loss of adjustment in a curriculum when the student does not know at the very beginning of his career the goal toward which he is working. This fact ought to be made clear to students and they ought to be notified that indecision and change are expensive. At the same time institutions ought to do all they can to minimize the losses which attend change. The introductory courses ought, if possible, to be organized in such a way as to serve a number of different purposes, and they should also guide the students in the selection of careers appropriate to their particular abilities and temperaments.

Finally, there is a fourth problem which must be faced by the makers of the curriculum of teacher-training institutions. Whatever may be the intellectual program most desirable, there are economic considerations which enter in an imperative way to determine the length of the curriculum which students can be required to take. If society is willing to pay teachers a sufficient salary so that they may properly be asked to spend three or four years in preparation for their professional careers, teachers colleges can offer a broader curriculum than is now commonly possible. The fact is that a two-year curriculum is about all that society is now willing to pay for. The result is that the teacher-training institutions must accomplish what they can in two years even if the total of their accomplishments is less than might be desired.

Since the economic considerations are sure to determine the length of a student's stay in institutions, these economic considerations should be carefully considered when the program is set up. There is a general movement to organize three- and four-year curricula in teacher-training institutions, but these longer curricula do not accomplish what it was assumed they would accomplish. A recent estimate has been made by a group of students of teachers colleges of the positions to which graduates of these institutions go. Ninety percent of the graduates of teachers colleges who have completed the four-year curriculum enter high schools rather than elementary schools. If it is true that the third and fourth years are not taken in any large measure by teachers who are preparing to teach in the elementary school, then the question certainly arises whether these third and fourth years ought to play any large part in the curriculum to which the teacher-training institution devotes its energies.

In stating the problems that confront the officers of teachers colleges, I have refrained from attempting to present solutions. If I told what seems to me to be the solutions, I should evidently be doing what everyone else is doing, namely, relying on my personal experience and possible insight. My purpose in this paper has not been to offer opinion but to urge the adoption of a program of scientific attack on this important problem. It is important for all of us, whatever our disagreements in detail, to recognize the fact that the curriculum of any teachers college must ultimately be determined in the light of facts with regard to economic conditions and with regard to the intellectual and professional needs of students. It seems evident, therefore, that teacher-training institutions ought to devote a large part of their energies to a careful analytical study of the teaching profession in order that they may be able to guide their own conduct in training prospective members of this profession.

I make bold to assert on the basis of a great deal of observation of teachers colleges that there is relatively very little scientific study actually being made at the present time of the duties and the proper qualifications of teachers. A body of traditional practice has been built up and is slowly being modified under great pressure. Some of the types of pressure which are effective in changing the practices of teachers colleges can be enu-

merated: Society is asking for better teachers. Teachers are asking for a type of training which will make it possible for them to be assured of specific preparation for the particular kinds of positions to which they are going. New bodies of scientific educational material are being produced which are gradually making their way into the teacher-training curricula. All of these types of pressure are tending to modify somewhat the curriculum which was established in the early days of the normal schools in this country. But these pressures are not operating to produce a well-balanced curriculum. Sometimes one pressure operates so powerfully as to bias rather than improve the curriculum. For example, when the students of a teachers college want to go into high schools in any considerable numbers, the curriculum is likely to take on in increasing degree an academic character. In other cases the arrival in the faculty of a strong teacher thoroughly imbued with the idea of educational research throws the balance in the direction of excessive emphasis on scientific studies. Sometimes under these conditions courses become so detailed that they overwhelm the students and deflect their training away from the practical side.

The pressures exerted on a teachers college are all the more likely to produce accidental results because the teachers colleges are in general isolated institutions. There is no competition between one teachers college and another. These institutions are organized by the state and assigned to a territory where their control is almost supreme. The ordinary arts colleges have to conform to the demands of the country because they are in such close competition with one another that they would disappear if they were not sensitive to the demands of the community. A teachers college is free from most of the controls which arise from competition and as a result is open to all the accidental influences that come through a strong personality on the faculty or through the ambition of a president to enter this or that field not originally included in the state's program of teacher training.

My plea is for a scientific study by all teachers colleges of the problems which confront them. The lower schools have discovered that the reconstruction of the curriculum is one of the major problems of today. The school systems of this country, and in some places the arts colleges, are vigorously studying the curriculum by the best scientific methods. Certainly nothing could be undertaken with more profit than a careful study of the requirements of the teacher-training profession and of the best way in which these requirements can be met. If this study is not made, the breach between the normal school and the lower schools will widen, and the breach between the teachers colleges and those institutions which are devoted to a scientific study of education will also grow wider and wider. On the other hand, if a careful scientific study can be made of the requirements of the teaching profession and of the ways of meeting these requirements, the teachers colleges can assert with a degree of assurance which is today impossible that they are fulfilling the functions which justify them in demanding public support.

Please note that I am not saying that these institutions are not now serving an important function. What I am saying is that that function and the best way of serving it are not clearly defined. Teachers colleges are not in agreement with one another or fully adjusted to the other higher institutions of the country. Teachers colleges will continue to be uncertain of their place until they seriously and vigorously adopt a program of scientific study of their constituency, of their products, and of the methods of improving these products.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON AWARDING THE EUROPEAN TRAVELING FELLOWSHIP IN HEALTH EDUCATION

CHARLES MC KENNY, PRESIDENT, STATE NORMAL COLLEGE, YPSILANTI MICHIGAN, CHAIRMAN

Purpose of Committee—In February, 1925, an European Traveling Fellowship financed by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company was offered by the Health Education Division of the American Child Health Association to members of faculties of institutions belonging to the American Association of Teachers Colleges. In accepting this offer the A. A. T. C. authorized its president to appoint three representatives to serve on a committee of five to arrange and to administer the details connected with the award. Professor Thomas D. Wood, of Teachers College, Columbia University, representing the Educational Advisory Committee of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, and Miss Emma Dolfinger, representing the American Child Health Association, served with President Higbie, President Black, and myself on this committee.

Procedure—All institutions in this association were circularized with information concerning this fellowship and were invited to present candidates. Twenty-three institutions responded and sixteen of the candidates presented to the committee documents fulfilling the requirements.

The committee found it impossible to meet as a body to consider the material, so it authorized the Health Education Division of the American Child Health Association to do the preliminary work in selecting the ten most promising candidates. The documents of these ten were then forwarded to each member of the committee for appraisal and vote. All documents were presented under a code number and care was taken to eliminate from the material any local references.

Results—Four of the five members gave as their first choice of candidate Miss Anita Dowell, of the State Normal School of Maryland. The Fellowship was therefore offered to Miss Dowell and was accepted by her. She sailed for Europe in time to attend the conference of the World Federation of Education and spent the rest of the summer and fall visiting educational centers in Europe. Miss Dowell's excellent report, from which

mimeographed excerpts are available at this meeting, indicates the scholarly character and wide scope of her investigations.

The documents submitted by the candidates for this fellowship contained material which the committee felt would be helpful to all those interested in preparing teachers for health education. The Health Education Division of the American Child Health Association was therefore authorized to prepare a bulletin, utilizing this material, with the consent of the candidates. This bulletin is now available under the title "Some Tendencies in Health Education" and a copy has been sent to each institution belonging to the American Association of Teachers Colleges.

In behalf of the Committee,

Charles McKenny, Chairman
Emma Dolfinger, Secretary
George H. Black
Edward C. Higbie
Thomas D. Wood.

Teacher Training Institutions Proposing Candidates for the Fellowship

Concord State Normal, Athens, West Va.
East Central State Teachers College, Ada, Okla.
George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn. (2)
Georgia State College for Women, Milledgeville, Ga.
Harris Teachers College, St. Louis, Mo.
Indiana State Normal School, Terre Haute, Ind. (2)
Louisville Normal School, Louisville, Ky.
Maryland State Normal School, Towson, Md.
Michigan State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Mich.
Morehead State Normal, Morehead, Ky.
Nebraska State Normal School and Teachers College, Kearney, Nebr.
Northeastern Teachers College, Tahlequah, Okla.
State Normal School, Brockport, N. Y.
State Normal School, Cheney, Wash.
State Normal School, Minot, N. D.
State Normal School, New Paltz, N. Y.
State Normal School, Oswego, N. Y.
State Normal School, Trenton, N. J.
State Normal School, Whitewater, Wis.
State Normal School, Worcester, Mass.
State Teachers College, Moorhead, Minn.
Teachers College, 525 W. 120th St., New York City.
Teachers College of Miami University, Oxford, Ohio
Territorial Normal Training School, Honolulu, Hawaii
Western State Normal, Kalamazoo, Mich.

Report on European Traveling Fellowship in Health Education, 1925

The appended report is condensed from the 60-page report submitted to the Committee by Anita S. Dowell, Maryland State Normal School, Towson, Maryland.

Scope and character of the investigation—The itinerary of five months from July to December, 1925, included besides the World Federation of Educational Association, two other conferences—the New Education Fellowship Conference, held at Heidelberg, August 4 to August 15 and the International Child Welfare Conference, at Geneva, August 24 to August 29. The months that followed were spent in visiting schools, reported to be doing interesting work in health education and those known as the “new” schools. The “new” schools, it was believed, would present especially progressive programs of education. Sally Lucas Jean, health consultant of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, and Lucy Oppen, associate staff director of the American Child Health Association, assisted in planning the itinerary. At the New Education Fellowship Conference it was possible to meet leaders in education from many European countries, to make personal inquiries and even to plan finally for visits to almost every school which promised health education work of an interesting nature.

The purpose of this investigation was primarily to discover what was being done in the field of health education. Therefore, it was necessary to consider the teaching of health in elementary and secondary schools, which seemed to indicate, first, a study of methods of establishing habits of health, whether consciously by the instructor or by the requirements of the daily school program, and, second, a study of courses in hygiene and methods of teaching the subject. To this has been added, as far as opportunity permitted, a study of health education in training schools that prepare especially for elementary school teaching. It did happen that this investigation led also to a number of situations—to school clinics, to health centers, to day nurseries, and to a number of special schools—which are not discussed here. Personal observation and conferences, supplemented by the study of printed materials, form the basis of this survey.

The report presents what may be called outstanding tendencies in health education in European countries, or in leading schools of some of these countries. In order to prevent the account from becoming too tedious, only those schools are mentioned here that seem particularly apt in illustrating each point considered. The study aims to be descriptive. The length of time devoted to the investigation was far too short to permit a critical discussion.

The text of the report has been organized under seven divisions,—(1) Conferences, (2) The Teaching of Health and Hygiene in Elementary and Secondary Schools, (3) Physical Education and Out-of-Door Activities, (4) Health Education in Teacher Training Schools, (5) Certain

Contributions to Health made by the "New" Schools, (6) School Buildings, (7) Special Schools and Institutions.

I. CONFERENCES

The second conference of the *World Federation of Educational Associations*, which convened in Edinburgh, July 20, was in many respects most inspirational. The Health Section, for instance, provided short reports from the field of health education in all parts of the world. It was here one realized the struggle in many of these far away countries to put common hygienic principles into practice and on the other hand, the astonishing results that some nations have accomplished.

The close of the Health Section meetings witnessed the acceptance of a number of resolutions which would tend toward the promotion of child health in all lands. As a report of this conference will be available shortly, I shall not take space here to go into a detailed account of these proceedings.

The most immediate outstanding result of the Health Section conferences was that the Plenary Session of the World Federation passed a resolution to appoint a standing committee on health.

The *New Education Fellowship Conference*, held at Heidelberg, August 2 to 14, was the third biennial international conference of the Association. This earnest and enthusiastic group of people directs its efforts toward a better understanding of applying the fundamentals of the "new" education. Though there were about five hundred persons in attendance at Heidelberg, this number included representatives from thirty different nations. It seems especially interesting to note that the governments of Holland, Poland, Latvia, Austria, and France paid the expenses of delegates that they sent to the Conference.

The appealing subject of discussion during the two weeks of the Conference was "The Release of the Creative Energy of the Child." Although psychologists and instructors in experimental schools dealt primarily in their discussions with child nature and new methods of teaching, all of the addresses were shot through with practical suggestions for maintaining and promoting the physical and the mental health of the child.

It was possible at this Conference, because of the rather small number present, to become well acquainted with many of the delegates. Lecturers also gave their time to small groups, so that they might clarify or expand some question to which they had previously made reference. This privilege of coming into direct contact with persons who know education in their own countries so thoroughly made it possible to plan very satisfactorily for the European itinerary in the study of Health Education.

The *First General Congress on Child Welfare* was held at Geneva, August 24 to 28. The work of the Congress was divided into three sections, I. Hygiene and Medicine; II. Social Welfare and Administration; III. Education and Propaganda. In each section a large number of unusually interesting and well-informed speakers addressed the Conference.

Even though these persons spoke in their native tongue, registered members of the Conference received copies of most of the addresses in the three languages, English, French, and German.

The Congress adopted numerous resolutions and recommendations in respect to each question that was discussed. Of the resolutions that pertained directly to the health of the school child, two of especial interest have been selected for this condensed report.

1. There should be a wide extension of general instruction in puericulture and in all that relates to the hygiene of children and adolescents. Such instruction should be given to all classes and to persons of all ages. It should include:

a. Progressive courses adapted to the various grades of public education, elementary, secondary, and higher, and provision, in particular, for the foundation of chairs of puericulture in universities.

2. All workers in the child welfare movement—doctors, midwives, visiting nurses, social workers, *teachers*, administrators, officials, office-staff, lower-grade workers—should be especially trained so that they may all act in the same spirit, whatever may be their particular share in the work.

II. THE TEACHING OF HEALTH AND OF HYGIENE IN ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Health Habit Formation

The effort to help children establish habits of health through teaching and daily practice, is not found generally in the elementary or the secondary schools of Europe. Only two of the countries visited, Austria and Belgium, are attempting to do this throughout the elementary schools. There are, however, *individual* schools in a number of countries which include in their programs health teaching with emphasis on habit formation.

In both Austria and Belgium this health teaching is under the auspices of the Junior Red Cross. The Austrian Junior Red Cross organization is just *initiating* health teaching; whereas, the Belgian Junior Red Cross is carrying on the health teaching introduced by Americans working under the health section of the Committee for the Relief of Belgium in 1922-1924. Both the Austrian and Belgian Junior Red Cross organizations furnish the elementary teacher with materials, such as booklets of health rules, stories, and scientific knowledge in simple form for children, and these publications place considerable emphasis upon health activities.

The method of conducting the teaching of health is quite similar in the two countries. Careful attention is paid to recording the performances of activities in health and lessons are taught in order to give reasons for rules. Though this teaching has been in progress in Austria only a little over one year and though the schools lack equipment and materials, due to the poverty from which Austria is suffering, most of the instructors interviewed seemed to feel that they are securing desirable results. The Junior Red Cross organization claims that more than one hundred thousand school

children in Vienna out of a total of one hundred forty thousand, worked on the health rules in 1924-1925.

In Belgium an official of the Junior Red Cross Organization gives her time for the stimulation and supervision of this health work in the elementary schools. The schools give time each day for marking the health rules, frequently in connection with health lessons. Children of all ages, even up to 14 years, work on these records. These schools also keep systematic monthly records of the height and weight of each pupil. The pupil puts his own rating in his book; then there are the posted records of pupils in each classroom and cards in the principal's office which give full data of each child's weight and height. Children who are underweight enter a nutrition class. This teaching of health habits is said to be in operation in most of the schools of Brussels and in a number outside of the city.

The Junior Red Cross Organization of Czechoslovakia also publishes health rules and pamphlets containing health material for children, though it did not appear that this organization had succeeded in putting the materials into the state schools.

In the Home School, at Budapest, Hungary, an elementary school of the first four grades, the children daily record their observance of health rules in note books of their own making.

(The detailed analysis made by Miss Dowell of the health rules is here omitted. Briefly summarized, emphasis is laid upon the habits of cleanliness, fresh air, rest, diet, elimination, and exercise. It is interesting to note that neither play nor exercise out-of-doors is found in the Austrian list and suggestions for suitable diet are also omitted from Austrian and Budapest rules.)

The Nursery Schools of England, by means of their daily programs, afford ideal training in habits of health.

Even though the Nursery Schools aim to set up such desirable habits of health, the Infant and Elementary Schools of England appear to be making little concerted effort toward this end. Extracts from the Annual Report of the Chief Medical Officer of the Board of Education for the year 1924, London, shows a recognition of this aim in hygiene teaching:

"Health teaching is a more fundamental and larger subject than has yet been generally recognized. The case will not be met simply by arranging for more set periods devoted to hygiene in the school curriculum. Nevertheless, not less but more—much more—health teaching should be given, and the adequate teaching of hygiene must take into account the age of the child and must provide a concrete and obvious practice. . . . A syllabus accordingly seems to be needed, planned carefully to meet the requirements and capacities of children at different ages, its purpose being to establish the content of health instruction which in one way and another the teacher should see is actually incorporated as an organic part of the general subjects of school instruction."

The public school of England is the more or less expensive boarding

school, established by private groups. These have been, in the main, the schools that have put into practice very modern ideas of education, so a number of these public schools are classed as "new" schools. J. H. Badley, headmaster of Bedales Public School, England, writes of the public school, "The strong point of the public school system . . . lies in the fact that it treats the boys as a whole and recognizes that body, mind, and character all need training and are all three material with which the school has to deal. Life at a public school . . . has in general been a healthy one." This statement in regard to the public schools of England may be applied generally to the boarding schools of Germany and Switzerland also. A survey of the daily programs of these schools explains the claim that life at the public school "has . . . been a healthy one," but, most of all, such programs include what seem ideal methods of providing for health education. Children attending these schools, if they take the full course, may live under such a regimen of health from three to nineteen years of age. Certainly, most pupils who enter these private institutions spend much of their childhood and youth in them.

It may seem rather surprising to learn that boys and girls of sixteen, seventeen, and eighteen go through inspection of hands, nails, hair, and shoes before meals. This is one of the regulations of a number of these boarding school programs. Such inspection is found at Bedales, England; *Odenwaldschule*, Germany; and *Hof-Oberkirche*, Switzerland. The organization of this routine elevates rather than belittles such procedure, because it throws responsibility upon older members of the student group, and instructors, also, show in many ways that they regard the exercise as worth while.

Daily baths are required in all of these schools. The schools schedule regular bath hours. Some schools are making earnest efforts to establish the habit of cold bathing.

Some of these schools have adopted air bathing as a regular routine of the daily program. At the *Odenwaldschule*, Germany, students of the same sex exercise for a few minutes every morning without clothing in a large gymnasium room where all the windows are open. At Bedales and Frencham Heights, England, girls and boys don their gymnasium suits, without heavy or warm clothing, and take a morning run of three quarters of a mile to one mile.

Bedales seems unique in that the school assigns a period after breakfast for visits to the lavatories. Student prefects, who supervise, arrange the individual's time. This regulation did not arise because of insufficient equipment, but because in this way right habits might be established.

Twelve or more hours of sleep are allowed for the younger children in these boarding schools, and usually ten hours for the oldest. In addition, there is the siesta of an hour after the noon meal, when the younger children nap and the older ones, if they do not sleep, rest. It is the unscheduled time of the day, when no duties may be assigned.

These schools especially aim to establish the habits of out-of-door exercise, so they definitely schedule considerable time every day for out-of-door activities.

Courses of Study That Include Health Teaching

The Home School, at Budapest, and the Decroly School, at Brussels—both of which are “new” schools—offer courses of study that present excellent opportunities for health teaching. At the Home School, the work of the first year and second year, centers around the life of the family. Since this study is presented in the form of play activities, the children dramatize, as well as talk and write about desirable ways of living in their own homes and in the school. The keynote of all the project teaching, which characterizes the third and fourth years, is best stated in the words of the director of the school: “The aim is to teach the children to know Budapest and to show their love in return for what the city does for them.” In this study of their city the children learn much of community and personal hygiene.

The program of the Decroly School, Brussels, from its general method of organization, must, it seems, include considerable hygiene teaching. This is especially true if it is to fulfill Dr. Decroly’s statement, “It is the needs of the child that serve as a pivotal fact.”¹ The four centers of interest in the Decroly program are shelter, food, defense, and work, and the approach to each of these centers is made by means of a study of the family, the school, society, animals, vegetables, and minerals. A few topics from teaching outlines for various grades illustrate the type of subjects introduced. This report is too brief to do more than state that these outlines also show how very frequently such material can be included.

Shelter includes “A General Consideration of Clothing,” “Protection from Inclement Weather,” “Footgear,” “Different Methods of Heating and Ventilating,”

Food—“Our Meals,” “Vegetables,” “Eggs and Meat,” “The Carrot and the Tomato,” and a long list of other foods.

Defense “Dangerous Animals and Plants” (Animals and plants carrying diseases): “The Senses as Means of Protection,” “The Firemen and the Scavengers.”

Work—“Use of the Hand,” “The Strength of Men and Animals,” “Rest after Work,” “Sleep,” “Recreation and Games.”

Every room of the Decroly School presented attractive *original* health posters, the work of pupils as an outgrowth of lessons taught. In the first grade rooms, placards with simple sentences on health subjects served as reading lessons. It seemed quite appropriate that the children had placed

¹ Ovide Decroly—Conference at Aoderlecht.

accident prevention posters and slogans around the coat-racks in the vestibule of the school.

In the government supported schools of the European countries, as well as in the "new" schools, it is quite common to find courses in physiology and hygiene given in the upper grades of the elementary schools and in the lower grades of the secondary schools. The English elementary and secondary schools regularly require a year's course in physiology and hygiene. Whenever domestic science is taught in the secondary schools, hygiene is closely coordinated with this science course. The Central Schools, which prepare children for commercial and industrial work, especially emphasize this kind of training. For example, each year during the school term of four years, Fulham Central School gives practical work in domestic science, housecraft, and mothercraft. The laboratory for these courses consists of a suite of rooms—bedroom, bath, dining room, pantry, kitchen, and laundry. In connection with this course, an hour each week during all four years is devoted to principles of hygiene which underlie the practice in the laboratory. In some other countries, for example, Austria and Czechoslovakia, physiology and hygiene are taught in connection with the study of natural history, though the teaching of physiology and hygiene in the elementary and secondary schools seemed decidedly formal, the countries of Europe have at least secured a place for these subjects in the *curricula* planned for pupils who are in their teens.

III. PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND OUT-OF-DOOR ACTIVITY

One interested in health can but note the variety of exercise and the emphasis placed upon physical education and out-of-door activities in the elementary and secondary programs of European schools. Physical exercise in these schools takes the form of rhythmic, (especially for young children), gymnastics, games, sports, and hiking. The private boarding school adds to these various kinds of out-of-door work. Wherever the Montessori schools are found, and this method of teaching prevails in the "new" schools of England, Holland, Sweden, Germany (Odenwaldschule), and Switzerland, young children have rhythmic. The Decroly School, Brussels, and the *Annaskolan*, Sweden, also give courses in rhythmic.

Gymnastics in Europe is at present a most interesting subject of study. One of the outstanding characteristics of the new systems, wherever found, is that they tend to be less formal than the Ling and the militaristic systems, and they claim to be especially adapted to the age of the individual. *The Bjorksten Method*, devised by Eli Bjorksten, of Finland, has been introduced into the elementary schools of Stockholm and Copenhagen, by pupils of Miss Bjorksten, who claim that the exercises have a psychological, as well as a biological and physiological, basis and that they are so selected and planned that though the movements are energetic, there aims to be no tenseness or effort to hold the position. *The Falk System*, introduced

into Sweden by Miss Falk, a supervisor of gymnastics, has much in common with the Bjorksten Method, but has, in addition, worked out a series of corrective exercises.

Two new systems of gymnastics in Germany are the Mensendieck and the Bode. These are alike in that the exercises are developed without the use of apparatus. Otherwise they seem quite different. The Mensendieck is a system for girls and women. There is the "effort to develop the body of woman—good breathing and good musculature" . . . "bodily exercises for women must be different from those for men. The Bode System, planned for both girls and boys of secondary school age, is one that employs rhythm for performing each movement. It is amazing in observing a class to discover how strenuous these exercises are and how thoroughly they bring all the muscles into play.

Dr. Gaulhofer, director of physical education in Austria, and Dr. Margaretta Stricker, professor of physical education at the University of Vienna and supervisor of physical education, have introduced methods of their own into some of the elementary schools of Vienna. The authors claim a careful biological basis for their system, and they especially emphasize the value of sports and games.

The amount of time given to gymnastics in the European schools frequently exceeds two periods of forty or fifty minutes a week. Some of the public elementary schools of Belgium provide one half hour daily for each class. The *Lichtwarkschule*, Hamburg, gives one period of forty minutes a day to each class. The secondary schools in Austria, three periods of fifty minutes each, a week.

Even though gymnastics occupies an important place in these school programs, games, sports, and out-of-doors activities receive an amazing amount of time. In a number of countries, one or two afternoons a week are set aside for games. On these days, schools close early, in order to give the full afternoon to recreation. Out-of-door activities include gardening, care of pets, and participation in many kinds of work on the school property, such as making tennis courts, cleaning the school grounds, attending to shrubbery. Swimming, too, may be a required course in the curriculum. This is true of the elementary schools in the larger cities of England and Belgium. Some schools give opportunity to pupils for training in winter sports. This is especially true in Austria, where a teacher, after having had a course in sports, may take her class to the mountains for a week during the winter school months. The *Annaskolan*, Stockholm, Sweden, has shortened the school day during the winter in order to allow the girls, who are attending the school, to be enjoying sports out-of-doors while it is still daylight during the short winter afternoons. Hiking also occupies a place in these programs and is promoted by state systems of education. The Austrian Ministry of Education allows one school day a month for hiking. The free schools in Hamburg devote one day a week, if they so desire, to hiking. (Both Austria and Germany have the six school day week.)

IV. HEALTH EDUCATION IN TEACHER TRAINING SCHOOLS

The brief survey of the teacher training courses in health that follows deals principally with the preparation of teachers for schools of elementary grade. The writer has recorded the data in respect to these courses that were available and not alone the practices that seem most desirable.

Austria

Wanderlehrerin's Course

During the last two years, authorities in Austria have been making definite preparation for health teaching. The Ministry of Education offers certain teachers, usually the more experienced ones, leave of absence from teaching and ten months for study at the Pirquet Clinic. The course at the clinic includes:

- 5 months spent in a study of diets for children and the preparation of these foods.
- 2 months in experience in caring for sick children.
- 2 months in care of mentally defective children.
- 1 month in the medical ward where there are children of school age.

After the completion of such a course, the duties of these teachers are threefold—they instruct teachers of elementary grades, pupils of upper grades in elementary and secondary schools, and they hold classes for parents. Because such teachers have been assigned a definite district in Austria over which they travel in their teaching, they have been called “Wanderlehrerin.” The teachers have not yet been admitted into the schools of Vienna. The government provides certain equipment for each of these teachers. It consists of materials necessary in teaching the care of the baby, in teaching First Aid, and in demonstrating simple treatments that can be performed in the home. Because of the experienced teacher’s pedagogical training, no course is given in the planning and the presentation of health lessons.

The Training of Teachers of Physical Education

Teachers of elementary grades in many places in Austria teach all subjects, including physical education. The elementary teachers who have been more recently appointed have been required to take courses in physical education during their entire *two years* of preparation for teaching. A *special* instructor of physical education, however, in elementary or secondary school must pursue a university course of four years. These students major in physical education and a second subject, such as biology or physiology, which they are often also required to teach.

Courses in Winter Sports at Mt. Christoph am Arlberg

The Austrian government has established a school for winter sports at Mt. Christoph am Arlberg. Teachers of elementary or secondary schools may secure permission to spend a week during the month of January or

February at a hospice at Mt. Christoph for training in winter sports. After passing this course, these teachers are qualified to take their pupils to the mountains for a week of participation in sports.

Belgium

There is no special training provided for the teachers in Belgium, although the teacher training schools give a required course in hygiene.

England

The two-year curriculum for elementary teaching in the teacher training colleges of England includes hygiene and physical training courses continuously during the two years. Frequently hygiene is taught in connection with domestic science. This course seems often to include problems of both personal and school hygiene, but emphasis in the hygiene taught seems to be upon the teacher's maintenance of her own health and the effect of the environment in maintaining or promoting the health of pupils, and *not* upon the teaching of health to elementary school children. The time requirement for the study of hygiene is two hours a week for the first term and one hour a week for the remainder of the two-year course.

The outline below gives the time requirement for *physical education* in the English training colleges and very briefly characterizes those courses.

2 periods—(40 min. each)—per week, practical work devoted to gymnastics, games and methods of teaching.

1 period—(40 min. each)—lecture, which includes principles and methods of teaching.

2 periods—(40 min. each)—athletics, country dancing. In some schools these are not compulsory subjects, though it is found that all students participate in athletics.

Biology—is an elective subject, so it is not required of all students.

Sweden

The training course for elementary teaching extends over a period of three years. The student has had, previously, three years of preparatory school and eight years of elementary school work.

The following are the present required courses relative to health education:

Physiology, 2 hours per week for 1 year—lecture course.

Health of the School Child, 1 hour per week for 1 year—lecture course which deals with school hygiene.

Physical Education, 3 hours per week for 3 years—this course includes methods of teaching, games and gymnastics for elementary pupils.

During *student participation in teaching* the student is responsible for the hygienic care of the school room, but he does no teaching of health. He does teach gymnastics and games.

V. CERTAIN CONTRIBUTIONS TO HEALTH MADE BY THE "NEW" SCHOOLS

The "new" schools, in the main, possess characteristics which appear to have a desirable influence upon the mental and the moral health of pupils. Reference to some of their contributions to physical health is made in another chapter—Physical Education and Out-of-Door Activities.

VI. SCHOOL BUILDINGS

There appears to be no extensive building program being carried on in any of the European countries visited, though some, such as Sweden and Holland, have constructed a few particularly fine state schools since the Great War. Besides, many of the private boarding schools, established before and since the War, are delightful places in which to live. A few outstanding characteristics of the buildings in Sweden and Holland and of the boarding schools follow:

The new elementary and secondary schools in Stockholm house many pupils and are consequently large buildings. *Hogalidsskolan*, an elementary school accommodating about eighteen hundred pupils, has wide corridors and large rooms. One of the aims in the building of this school was to provide exceedingly light corridors and rooms. One rather unusual feature of this building is that handwashing equipment is both conveniently and abundantly supplied. Porcelain basins are installed in the corridors—three to every drinking fountain in each section of a corridor.

In Holland there are new school buildings that not only fulfill hygienic requirements, but because of their attractiveness in general plan, equipment, and furnishings, make some contribution doubtless to mental health. Two of the schools visited were the *Pallas Athene School*, Amersfoort, and *Spilstraat Infant School*, the Hague. The *Pallas Athene School*, opened in 1924, appears to be an attractive rambling bungalow set in a garden that the pupils are making. *Spilstraat Infant School* is a one-story building with a large playground. Both the schools are much alike in architecture.

All the rooms, however, are particularly light and sunny because of the type of window used. The windows are placed about two feet from the floor. A broad solid piece of glass extends about two feet up from the sill. The second section is made up of casement windows, and the third section of glass ventilators.

The rooms in the *Spilstraat Infant School* are equipped so that the children may do certain phases of household work. (These are Montessori classes.) There are tiled alcoves, equipped with running water, low sinks, small tubs, small ironing board and irons, and low tables with vases for arranging flowers. The Dutch love of colors adds attractiveness to these large, light rooms.

The *Lichtwarkschule*, Hamburg, a secondary school a little less than two years old deserves to be included as a type of healthy and attractive

school building. There seems to be no dark spot in the whole school. Also this building is unique in that, though it is a school accommodating five hundred pupils from ten to nineteen years, it has not a "form," in the whole building. Every room, except laboratories, where there is special equipment, is furnished with black-topped tables and chairs.

The boarding schools of England, Germany, and Switzerland are difficult to describe because of the variety that one finds. Sometimes such a school may be composed of a group of charming cottages, situated in a beautiful section of the country (*Odenwaldschule, Germany*). Other boarding schools have altered the handsome houses on large estates, or have constructed fine buildings on many acres of beautiful country (*Fresham Heights Public School and Bedales, England*). These buildings and their environment promote the atmosphere of freedom and home likeness that the schools aim to foster.

Baths a part of school equipment—Many of the European state-controlled schools are equipped with baths. In the schools of Denmark and Sweden, the bath suite includes two rooms. In the first room there are basins and foot tubs, where the pupils using soap scrub themselves well, and showers where they rinse off. The second room, contains a swimming pool where each child finishes his bath with a plunge. At *Marietastraat*, in Holland, there is a bath house building constructed for the use of the schools. The adjacent school and a number of distant ones make use of this building. It is equipped with many dressing rooms and many fine showers for both boys and girls, and, in addition, one section contains tubs and showers for the use of parents of the pupils. In Austria, England, and Germany, schools not provided with baths make arrangements for the regular use of public facilities.

VII. SPECIAL SCHOOLS AND INSTITUTIONS

Among the specialized schools and institutions visited the following were noted as especially interesting and progressive in their aims and achievements.

1. *The Nursery Schools of England*—The Rachel MacMillan Nursery School in London, consists of two departments, one supported by private individuals, the other by the state. Children admitted are from two to five. The school is a garden, around the walls of which are built long, low shelters. In this garden are animal pets and flower, vegetable and scented herb plots. The shelters open to the south and can be glassed in but seldom are. They are furnished with large, low tables and chairs for group work, toys, and educative games.

Each shelter has its adjoining bathroom. All of the children have their individual equipment for bathing and their drinking cups.

The nursery school program very largely affords training in health practices. Between eight and nine o'clock in the morning the children have their baths. All of the children participate as much as they can in

bathing themselves—even the toddlers are allowed to attempt to brush their own teeth and to wash their faces and hands. These schools keep a supply of fresh aprons and a suit of underwear for children in case they arrive in soiled clothing, but these seldom have to be used because parents quickly reflect the influence of the school in the care of their children. Meals are prefaced with visits to the toilets and washing hands. After dinner there is a siesta of several hours when every child is bundled up on his cot. Many opportunities for initiating health habits of other kinds occur continuously during the hours at the school and the teachers seem on the alert to take advantage of such occasions.

2. *Schools in the sun*—Dr. Augustus Rollier's successful treatment of certain diseases by the direct rays of the sun at Leysin, Switzerland, and Dr. Niel Finsen's work in Copenhagen have stimulated considerable interest in the valuable effects of sunlight on the human body in a number of European countries. Switzerland, especially, has definitely manifested this interest. In that country, the educational authorities have established several Schools in the Sun, *Rayons de Soleil*, for children of elementary school age. These are day schools, which are open from the first of May to the first of October, and children are admitted who are recommended by the medical supervisors attached to the public schools. The children are usually those who are poorly nourished, who have suffered with frequent colds or bronchitis or appear nervous.

3. *Tubercular schools*—Many countries have established schools for children with incipient lung tuberculosis or those predisposed to the disease. Stockholm conducts four of these schools in connection with its state schools; however, the tubercular open-air department is entirely separate from the rest of the building. Two schools, one in Frederiksberg and one in Copenhagen, Denmark, are situated in hospital grounds, so they are under the immediate supervision of physicians on the hospital staff. The tubercular school near Scheveningen, Holland, Herstellingsoord, though it has its open-air shelters, has provided for three classes out of doors.

All of the tubercular schools strictly adhere to a program of much rest and mild out-of-door exercise every day. These schools also make a special feature of training pupils to take care of themselves.

IV. *Open-Air Schools, Bradford, England*—Lister Lane School for defective children, Bradford, England, maintains an open-air section for incipient tubercular children—those children who have been dismissed from hospitals. This, too, is a day school.

Among the Bradford Open-Air Schools, there are two particularly interesting ones for children of elementary school age. The Daisy Hill School for Myopes has been called the "sight-saving" school. This school aims to preserve the sight of children suffering from myopia, first, by providing the best equipment for them to use in their work and, second, by affording the most healthful environment. Thackley House, which may be termed a preventive school, is an open-air building, accommodating over

three hundred children. The pupils eligible for admission to Thackley House are those suffering with non-infectious diseases, which are curable, such as anæmia, cervical adenitis, chronic bronchitis, malnutrition, asthma, schlerosis, bronchial catarrh, and chorea. The house consists of open-air verandas for classes, resting sheds, dining room, kitchen, bath, and a few indoor rooms for use in particularly disagreeable weather.

The daily program is carefully adapted to the physical needs of the children. The physician attached to Thackley House visits the school weekly and makes frequent examinations of the pupils. He keeps careful records of each case which shows every fluctuation in a pupil's condition. Pupils are not dismissed until they are well, and yet it is interesting to note that they rarely remain at the school longer than six months. Cases of chronic bronchitis and chorea are said to do especially well at Thackley House.

The Bradford Open Air Schools described in this chapter are supported by the city and are entirely free. The city even bears the expense of transportation from convenient points in the town. Children are selected for entrance from the elementary schools of the city, on the medical supervisor's recommendation.

The Forest Schools, *Waldschule*, Germany, are another type of preventive school, but the pupils are not selected for these schools because of physical disability. Whole schools, situated in the crowded sections of a city, move out to the forest buildings—if they are fortunate enough to possess such places—during the spring, and remain until cold weather comes.

The preventive schools, such as Thackley House, Bradford, England, and the *Waldschule*, Germany, present a new type of school. Thackley House affords an ideal environment, a daily program that takes into account each child's special needs, frequent medical supervision, and nourishing food for the child who in most school systems must remain in a school adapted primarily for sturdy, healthy children. The *Waldschule*, on the other hand, transports its pupils from the less wholesome environment of the city to the health-giving surroundings of the country.

Medical Inspection and Remedial Work

This report does not seem complete without some reference to the status of medical supervision. As would be supposed, medical supervision of some type is found in every country. Its range appears to extend from little more than supervision of the sanitation of buildings and the effort to stamp out trachoma, as in Budapest, Hungary, to the well-organized system of medical inspection and remedial work found in England. England, it seems, takes the lead in this phase of health work. All school children in England have three medical examinations from seven to fifteen years of age. In the elementary school these examinations occur at the age of eight, of twelve, and of fourteen, which means that the child is

examined soon after he enters elementary school—the age for entrance is seven—during his twelfth year and again at fourteen, just before he completes his course. If a child wishes to continue his education further than the elementary school course, he may enter the secondary school at ten or twelve years. He will still, however, have the two additional inspections, which correspond to the second and third of the elementary school. The first is given on entrance to the secondary school and the other at fifteen years. Besides these three examinations, a child may be examined at any time, if he appears to be ailing, under the designation, “Special.”

There seems to be a large number of children who come before the medical examiners each year in England. The Board of Education, in its Report for the year 1923-24, makes the statement that “The number of children in Public Elementary Schools who were medically examined at the routine inspection in 1923 was 1,755,000. In addition there were 739,400 children who were examined as ‘Specials,’ making a total of nearly 2,500,000 children inspected during the year. This means that not far short of half the children in the schools were seen by a school medical officer and their parents advised as to any treatment required.” In the private schools of England medical examination is even more frequent than in the government controlled schools. This is also true of private schools in other countries.

The schools in England do not apparently require an examination of the teeth each year. Pupils, of course, suffering with toothache are referred to a medical inspector or to a clinic. Some cities, notably Copenhagen, Brussels, Hamburg, require annual dental examinations. In connection with this special interest shown in the care of the teeth, many large cities are developing dental clinics for pupils. These clinics employ full-time dentists.

Most of the Government controlled European schools, located in the larger cities, which were visited, are attempting to fight malnutrition by providing nutritious luncheons for school children. Parents, too poor to pay the small amount asked for this food, receive it without cost. Except in Holland and Denmark, milk was not served with the luncheon, though one dish was usually prepared with milk, it was said.

Itinerary

Group Conferences—Edinburgh—The World Federation of Education Associations; Heidelberg—The New Education Fellowship Conference; Geneva—The First General Child Welfare Congress. In addition, the following educational institutions were visited:

Austria

The Tagesheim and Hygiensche Schuleinstitute in Salzburg. In Vienna, elementary schools, middle-schools for both boys and girls, Realgymnasias for Girls, the Von Pirquet Clinic and a Baby Clinic.

Belgium

In Brussels, the infant schools, the elementary schools, the Elementary

and High School, Ecole pour la vie par la vie (Dr. Decroly), and the school museum with exhibit of health work of schools. In Anderlecht the Infant School and the school clinics for the province of Brabant.

Czecho-Slovakia

The Bakuli Institute and the Day Nursery Schools in Prague.

Denmark

Three elementary and high schools in Copenhagen, 2 middle schools (Frederiksberg and Copenhagen) and one special for tubercular children. (Frederiksberg).

England

In London, the Marlborough Infant School, the Rachel MacMillan Nursery School, the Holbom Maternity Clinic; the Fellam Central School; the Streatham County School for Girls; the Stockwell Training College, Infant and Elementary School; University of London, Training School Department. In Manchester, the City of Manchester Training College and the City Nursery School.

In Bingley, the Bingley Training College.

In Bradford the Thackley School, the Sister Lane School and the Daisy Hill School.

At Letchworth St. Christopher's School; at Petersfield, Bedales; at Cambridge the Perse School for boys.

The Frensham Heights School at Farnham, Surrey.

France

The open air schools for frail children.

Germany

Five schools in Berlin and Hamburg in addition to the Odenwaldschule and the Waldschule.

Holland

Infant, elementary and middle schools at the Hague; also special schools for backward children. At Amersfoort, the Pallas Athene School; at Schoeningen, an elementary school and a tubercular school.

Hungary

At Budapest, the Home School.

Sweden

In Stockholm, three elementary schools, one elementary and high school, three teacher training institutions and one Practice School.

Switzerland

Four schools in "the Sun"; the Fellowship School at Gland and the Hof-Oberkirche School.

In addition, in all countries numerous conferences were held with individual educators and health officials.

THE PROBLEM OF CERTIFICATION IN RELATION TO TEACHER TRAINING

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It is a settled policy in this country that public education is not subject to local or municipal control except as the state expressly grants it. In all matters pertaining to certification and teacher training and all else relating to the school, the state may speak through its legislature with undisputed voice.¹ Education is distinctly a state function. That the state should encourage local initiative and control in matters pertaining to tools and methods, and the extension of local educational opportunities goes without saying, but that the state should exercise the right to formulate and effectively project constructive policies as the needs of the times and the state demands likewise goes without saying.

Importance of Trained Teachers

The chief educational problem of the state is that of securing a trained teacher for every school. The saddest and most discouraging picture in the whole field of public education today is the wide predominance of public point of view that anybody with average intelligence and a modicum of academic training is eligible to teach; that every ambitious youth of the community may very properly use teaching as temporary aid to his ultimate objective, and that any attempt to place an intelligent appraisal on the importance of teaching, or the necessity of thorough preparation for a particular field of teaching is an unwarranted encroachment on personal rights. That the public generally fails to see the preeminent importance of better teaching and the need of more adequate facilities for training teachers is abundantly evidenced by the fact that of all the institutions of higher and professional education the teacher training institutions are the least attractive, and relatively most scantily supported, notwithstanding the universal voice that the public school teachers are the most important servants of our democracy.

Teacher training school and public school inseparably linked together— The teacher training school and the public school are inseparably linked together. Their chief concern is in developing children. An institution cannot successfully train teachers until it knows fully and definitely what its trainees are expected to do,—what their jobs will be. It must keep in the closest touch with the aims, ideals and working conditions of the public school. Of necessity, the teacher training school, be it a state normal, a state teachers college, or a department of education in the state university, should march hand in hand with the public school. This implies an educational program that is specifically objective and one that involves close integration of effort. But in practice this very often is not the

¹ State ex rel. Clark vs. Hayworth, Ind. Supreme Court Report, 122 Ind., 462; 23 N. E., 946. Gunnison vs. Board of Ed., City of New York, 176 New York, 13.

case. Instead of finding a state educational program in which the state department of public instruction, the state teacher training forces, and the public schools constitute a united, closely coordinated means to an end, the opposite is found, resulting in dissipation of time and effort and, consequently, failure.

If such a state program were followed the teacher training school would be obliged, in forming its curriculum, to make a job analysis of the teacher's job. It would then construct its curriculum so as to train the prospective teacher in the habits, skills, and knowledges best suited to her task. Too generally this is precisely what the training school fails to do, because it is not thinking of its job in terms of the state's needs in the schoolroom. That this is true is abundantly evidenced by the wide range of courses in teachers colleges. In 1924 Dr. E. A. Cross, dean of Colorado State Teachers College, made a study of the four year curricula for the training of intermediate grade teachers in eleven teachers colleges. According to this study, the number of different required courses was one hundred twenty. Assuredly, this is ample evidence of the utter lack of proper coordination between state school officials and state teacher training officials; more especially when one reflects that there is rather a close uniformity in the curriculum of the elementary school.

As further evidence of lack of a state educational program, may I call attention to a recent study of teacher training, the report of which has not yet been printed. In this report it is revealed that in a group of institutions doing teacher training work prescribed professional courses range from nothing to twenty-four semester hours, and that elective professional courses range from six to thirty semester hours; that while there is this wide range of electives the offering in material and methods courses and in practice teaching is very inadequate, and that, as a consequence, a student often selects a variety of professional courses, secures some training in a number of fields, but is poorly trained in a particular field.

It is also reported that high school teachers are obliged to study the teaching of primary reading and other common school branches and, as a consequence, are trained neither for the elementary nor the high school teaching field.

Again, information respecting requirements for supervised teaching was requested recently from the forty-eight different departments of public instruction as a means of determining the interest of the state departments in the teacher training program. In the thirty-eight replies received it was abundantly apparent that there are but few states which have established a requirement for supervised teaching. In a large majority of the cases the requirement is left to the discretion of the training school. Three states reported a requirement of four semester hours of supervised teaching; three others reported supervised teaching not required; another reported one unit of observation and practice required; another a requirement of six weeks; another a requirement only for a first grade elementary certificate; another a requirement of ten weeks; another a requirement of

eighteen weeks. The point that stood out prominently in the replies was that there is utter lack of uniformity in requirement for supervised teaching in teacher training schools; moreover, utter lack, with few exceptions, of any state requirement.

Let us consider another case which shows the weakness resulting from lack of a close working agreement between state teacher training officials and state school officials—in short, a state school program. Admittedly, a large percent of the high schools in this country are small, having from 25 to 75 pupils enrolled and from two to four teachers. It is inconceivable that there can exist anything like a rational program of teacher training or certification without a unified program between the authorities that prescribe the high school curriculum and the authorities that train the teachers. The academic education of high school teachers must be based on special academic high school needs of teachers as these needs are determined by the high school curricula and organization. What the prospective high school teacher should study should not be determined solely on the basis of interest or personal bias, but also on the basis of the requirement of the vocation for which he is preparing.

Unfortunately, this principle has not been applied generally. The academic work of the high school teacher has not been prescribed and students have made many peculiar and unwise combinations for concentrated study. This fact, with an over-ambitious attempt to offer a high school course of study beyond the resources and needs of the community, which results from lack of a rational state program, very naturally brings calls from employing officials for teachers who can teach all sorts of weird combinations of subjects and stamps high school teaching uninviting, unsuccessful, and utterly defeats anything like a rational certificating program.

The fundamental need for appropriate training of high school teachers in the academic subjects is the simplification and proper adjustment of the high school curricula, and the organization of the high schools so as to provide definite teaching positions for which teachers may prepare, be licensed, and have the assurance of preparation for a definite teaching field. The generally accepted combinations of subjects for preparation should be followed, such as English and Latin; English and French; history and mathematics; history and economics; science and mathematics, etc.

Academic courses in high schools—Where there is lack of a wise and definite state educational program there will be found a wide range of offerings in high schools of a given size, and diversified curricula in the small high schools make the training of high school teachers in the academic subjects an impossible task.

The following is a typical schedule of a three-teacher high school:

Period	Teacher 1	Teacher 2	Teacher 3
I		English	Latin
II	Civics	Civics	Latin
III	Geometry	Ancient History	
IV	Arithmetic		Algebra
V	Gen. Science		Biology
VI	Gen. Science		Biology
VII	English	Modern History	French
VIII	English	English	French

It will be observed that Teacher 1 is teaching in four fields; Teacher 2 in two fields; and Teacher 3 in four fields. By the elimination of French it would be possible to organize this school so that no teacher would be obliged to teach in more than two related fields.

With proper high school organization rarely would a teacher be obliged to teach in more than two related fields, assuming that the evils of a widely diversified curricula in the small high school is eliminated. What has this to do with the subject under consideration? Simply this: the high school teacher cannot be trained in four years to teach successfully in more than two academic fields. The question is simply one of the relative importance of diversity as against concentration; superficiality as against thoroughness. Moreover, there is imperative need for organizing the high schools so as to provide definite teaching positions which will make possible a definite objective for the training school. This will enable the teacher training school to train teachers to the best advantage to the teacher, the employing official, and the public interest. The solution of this problem rests with the state.

It will be observed that the authorities in the state teacher training schools and state school officials each have their individual obligations, but they also have an obligation in common.

Distinct fields of teaching service—There can be no disagreement as to the distinct fields of teaching service. The work of the kindergarten-primary teacher is fundamentally different from the work of the intermediate-grammar grade teacher. The former has the responsibility of instituting properly the processes of formal education. The job here is one of habit building. The child's moral and social habits depend largely on the nature of his training in the kindergarten-primary grades. Here the job of the teacher is one of ceaseless attention to details. The job calls for a thorough understanding and deep interest in pupil characteristics. It calls especially for patience, perseverance, cheerfulness, intelligence, and technic. No other teaching field is so important as this one. If the processes of formal education are not started right, there is no known adequate remedy for the awful mistake.

In the intermediate field, the third to the sixth grades inclusive, a different teaching responsibility arises. The juvenile child presents a new and different problem. The juvenile child feels that he can stand alone. He

is independent, more or less selfish, lacking in sense of honor, and lives in a sphere to himself. His interest is in those of his age. He is impatient with and uninterested in adults. It is so easy to misunderstand the juvenile child. His is a different world. He likes action, is impulsive, energetic. The juvenile, therefore, presents a particular problem, and should have his spontaneous impulses under sympathetic, firm, and intelligent control.

In like manner, the other teaching fields offer particular problems and each require specific preparation.

In the training and certifying of teachers certain principles are to be regarded as basic. Teaching is highly specialized. It is vocational in character. The different fields in teaching are based on

- (a) The nature of knowledge or skill to be taught;
- (b) Age or grade of the learner; and
- (c) The nature of the work, whether it be teaching, supervision, or administration.

In the public schools the kind of workers are many—the superintendents, supervisors, principals, senior-high school teachers, upper-grade and junior-high school teachers, intermediate grade teachers, kindergarten-primary teachers, teachers of special subjects, and teachers of children that present a special problem. While there are common elements in the training of these different classes of school workers, there are always elements which are not common; that is, each class calls for a particular type of training which is applicable to the work to be done.

The teacher training program—The teacher training program in a state should be based on the best principles of education which rest on the best possible proof. In the present social evolution the discovery of the best ways and means in education is as important as the discovery of the best ways and means in industry. Education must necessarily rest upon the social sciences; psychology, sociology, economics and political science, and so many changes are taking place in these social sciences that a profession resting upon them must of necessity modify and change its principles; hence the further necessity of scientific research in education as in medicine, industry, and other fields; moreover, courage and good sense in the application of truths established. The time has passed for giving wide range in institutional freedom in the matter of training teachers; for argument and debate and for following institutional and personal opinion, to the point that the state is denied the advantages of greater uniformity, of point and purpose, of a sane and a modern teacher training program that will meet the needs of today. Especially is this true when the teacher training school is so scantily supported that it can not test its objectives and methods by men who have had extensive and severe intellectual training and who have the qualities of honesty, courage, and invention. This, however, does not mean that the training schools are to refrain from blazing new trails in matters of research in finding better ways of doing things or in furnishing leadership for the state.

The certification of teachers—Let us now consider the question of certifying teachers. Where public and private rights are involved the rule of action should be uniform and impartial. A certificate of eligibility duly authenticated should be exacted from each person who engages in the important task of training for citizenship. While, as stated, the state is supreme in matters of education, and while, to a very large degree, it has wisely delegated authority to the local community, yet in such important matters as determining curricula, the training and certification of teachers, the state, through its proper state officials, should exercise control.

The determination of kind of teaching positions, specific training best suited for the teaching positions, and the issuing of certificates are each and all state functions which cannot be delegated without wide diversity, and in general a lowering of educational standards.

Having the diversified kinds of work in the schools necessitating diversified training, there should be a system of certification based, not upon examinations, but upon length and character and quality of training.¹ The granting of teachers' certificates by methods other than those which lead through regularly organized training institutions is antediluvian. Certification by examination was a need when there were but few, if any, teacher training schools or departments, and when the public mind was not clear as to the kind and amount of training required for a particular kind of school work, but this need has passed with the progress made in teacher training in the last three decades.

Today the generally accepted standards of training for successful school work are high school graduation (four-year course) and the completion of a two-year course designed for elementary school teachers. (In a few places the standard has been raised to three to four years.) For high school teachers, graduation from a four-year standard normal school or college is the standard requirement, with specialization in high school teaching. Respecting the standard training for elementary supervisors, elementary school principals, high school principals, and superintendents, there is greater diversity of opinion. The tendency is toward this standard: (a) Graduation from a standard college or normal school; (b) three years of teaching experience; (c) a year of graduate work specializing in the special field of leadership.

The nature of one's training manifestly should determine the kind of certificate one receives. He should be licensed to teach only that for which he has prepared. Under the examination system there is little relation between the kind of license one receives and the nature of his training. Again, the granting of certificates on the basis of training to objectify standards of preparation for a particular kind of work which the examination fails to do.

Under a modern certifying system, based on training and on a sound graduated minimum salary schedule which takes into account training

¹ Bulletin No. 75, Essentials of Teacher Training in Indiana, State Department of Public Instruction.

and experience, we have a most substantial means for further advancement of the schools.

Principles which should support the state certification program—There are certain principles that are basic in the adoption of a modern certification program:

1. The authority to grant certificates should remain in and be discharged by the State Board of Education through its executive officer, the State Superintendent of Public Instruction.

2. All licenses and renewals should be made on the basis of credentials of training from approved teacher training institutions. (All examinations should be abolished.)

3. Prospective teachers should be required to select and prepare specifically for a special field of teaching. (General preparation should be made impossible.)

4. The State Board of Education should classify schools for the training of teachers and adopt definite standards for each class.

5. Each applicant for a license should present a health certificate procured from a physician on the staff of, or be designated by, the institution in which the applicant has completed the training on which he is applying for a license.

6. The teacher who wishes to change from one field of teaching to another should be required to make up all material differences in general and professional academic preparation between that required by the license held and that required by the license desired.

7. The state should determine minimum salaries based upon training and kind of certificate held.

8. Full credit should be given for work completed in a standard institution of another state. Technical deficiencies should be dealt with liberally.

9. The period of validity of certificates lower than first class should be limited. Extensions and renewals of such certificates should be based upon additional training and successful experience.

10. A teacher should be able to pass from a lower to a higher certificate on the basis of training and successful experience.

11. There should be as many kinds of certificates as there are distinct jobs in the public school system: e.g., for determining a supervisory officer; for high school principals; for elementary school principals; senior high school teachers; junior high school teachers; regular high school teachers; special teachers in music, art, agriculture, home economics, manual training, physical education; elementary teachers, including kindergarten, primary, intermediate, and grammar grades.

Manifestly, the issuing of teachers' certificates should be removed, in so far as possible, from charitable, political, religious, social or personal influence, a tendency not uncommon as is shown by a letter addressed to State Superintendent F. G. Blair, of Illinois, and published in *School and Society*, June number, 1924. It reads:

"I have written on the 'Teachers Examination' twice but have failed. My memory is not so good as I wish it were. I have had a great deal of trouble but love teaching, everyone is well pleased with my work and I could get this school again or a third and fourth grade in town, both have been mentioned to me by the Directors but I have only an emergency certificate. The County Superintendent issued me an Emergency Certificate through sympathy and because the directors of this school and many others urged it.

"Now Mr. Blair, won't you please let me have a certificate without 'Emergency' written on it for I just can't pass those awful examinations.

"I taught two terms when I was seventeen and eighteen years old. Now I am forty-six."

The great need is the removal from the schools of such evil tendencies as shown by this letter. The charitable program should be that of furnishing the poor man's children with a competent teacher rather than furnishing the poor man's daughter a school when she is not prepared to teach.

Conclusion—Finally, there should be greater unanimity of program between the states,—greater standardization of courses leading to the different kinds of certificates. This will make possible a more definite classification of certificates issued on the basis of academic and professional training which in turn will make possible the adoption of a uniform nomenclature, and the adoption of governing principles so that reciprocal relations may be established, and a more general, and a fairer system of recognition or exchange of certificates established between the states, a reform that should speedily come.

PLANS FOR STUDYING, MODIFYING, AND ENFORCING THESE STANDARDS

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It is something akin to the irony of fate that the person who was very active nine years ago in setting up "Standards and Directions for Conducting Inside Surveys in State Normal Schools" should be called on today to discuss this topic. The Committee which made that report at Kansas City in 1917 consisted of Presidents Seerley, Felmley, Maxwell, Dean Minnich, and myself. The report was, in reality, a protective protest. Persons, more or less expert, had been surveying state normal schools under the banner of the Bureau of Education or of one of the several Foundations. Yardsticks were being used chiefly to measure the deficiencies of state normal schools, and were being used chiefly by men who had had no responsible connections with such institutions and who did not, therefore, appreciate the difficulties involved in attaining the ideal which was relatively easy to state. The report in question was a protest against such procedure. It was, however, more than a protest because it set up certain standards in terms of which state normal schools might measure themselves and thus, by giving sufficient publicity to the facts thus measured, avoid further

unfriendly surveys and, at the same time, win a more generous public support. In this sense the Report of 1917 was protective because it claimed the right of state normal schools to have some part in determining the standards by which their work is to be measured.

The Report of 1917 also recommended the formation of a Committee on Surveys and Standards consisting of five members each serving a five year term. Every man who has served his term on this committee has literally "gone to school" with great individual profit and also with profit to all of us. Styles have changed a bit and the National Council has become, or been absorbed by, the American Association of Teachers Colleges. Included in our membership are some of our most strenuous former critics. The fifteen or twenty four-year teachers colleges of that day have increased to more than one hundred. The institutions devoted to the preparation of teachers have grown, developed, and improved, but we still have with us the problem, if not the battle, of standards, notwithstanding our almost unanimous action this morning.

A *standard* is that which is set up and established by authority, by custom, or by general consent. The reason for establishing standards of any kind is to be found only in terms of expected human welfare. Standards set up for any other purpose are factitious and for ostentation. Standards are not absolute even when established by properly constituted legal authority and relating to measures of extent, weight, or quantity. The legal authority which established such standards can modify them or abolish them entirely and set up new ones. Standards that have been set by custom inevitably, in a progressive world, grow old and out of date. Such standards must be constantly revised, in terms of current changes, in order to prevent them from becoming veritable millstones. Standards that are established by general consent are usually rather loosely drawn compromises and are statements of the best that can be done, all circumstances considered. Such standards, when followed in successive years, decades, or centuries become the standards of custom.

What the American Association of Teachers Colleges is trying to do is to set up and establish by general consent standards which will advance human welfare through an increased effectiveness of the work of these institutions. And we are trying to do it at a time when people generally vainly imagine that standardization means the realization of perfection and very largely by a process of borrowing or imitating or adapting custom-built standards as these exist in collegiate institutions. And some are even bold enough to wonder if we can't discover or formulate some method by which the authority of a voluntary organization may be stretched to cover the enforcing of these standards. "According to Hoyle" still has its appeal notwithstanding the fact that Hoyle is no longer recognized as an authority by those who play cards.

This Association has standards which were adopted at the meeting in Cleveland in 1920 and a new set adopted this morning. Every member who has carefully studied these standards is probably not completely satis-

fied with them. These standards are largely an adaptation of those of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools—a voluntary organization of the Middle West. But no matter what standards we have, there is always present the necessity for a plan in accordance with which our association studies and modifies its standards. If we do not do this, we inevitably and soon grow archaic.

We should have a Committee on Standards—a Committee small in number but with long terms—five, seven, or nine years. This Committee should study and state clearly the function of teacher-preparation institutions for out of function standards grow, or should grow. This Committee should, after a few years of study, be able to distinguish between things that can be helpfully standardized and things that can not be helpfully standardized. The Committee should save us from rampant, impractical idealism; it should keep its feet on the ground but be always aware that there are stars in the heavens.

The current tendency is to standardize every detail of procedure. Unless checked, this tendency will land us in automatism. We need a clear definition of what things should be standardized and to what extent. For example: Should the hours per week for teachers be standardized at all? Should this standard be absolute (say 16), or should it be variable (say 12 to 20)? And just why, in terms of function, should such a standard be set? I have a suspicion that in our present statement of standards we have imitatively copied a standard that developed in a different functional environment.

There is a widespread conviction among the members of this association that our present statement of standards is too wide in its scope and too largely a replica of standards set by institutions that have a different function—in short, the feeling is that we have done little or nothing to develop our own standards. We represent vocational institutions. Some of these institutions are public and some are private. Each has its own superior authority beyond which it can not go. The consent which any one of us can give is only a provisional and temporary consent. If we agree here as to standard qualifications for our teachers, we may not be able to convince our superior authority of the worth and necessity of such standards—and even this superior educational authority, convinced as are we, may be unable to get from the legislature sufficient funds to make it possible to employ persons with these qualifications.

Even though this association has formally adopted certain standards, it is doubtful if any constituent member attains all the standards we have so blithely set up. Take, for illustration, the standard of 10 clock hours of student teaching. There are many Class A institutions in this association that actually give little more than two thirds of this amount. At least one university has worked out a system of "vicarious student teaching" which is little more than what was called "observation" twenty or twenty-five years ago. And the related standard of four children in the Training School for each person assigned to student teaching (which does not appear

in our "Revised Version") is, as a general rule, "more honored in the breach than in the observance." A standard, to be helpful toward better things, must be more and other than a pious wish. Two thousand children in fifty rooms of forty each in a public school system may mean much or little. I know of such a situation in which only one hundred persons are permitted to do student teaching. The two thousand children are only equal to four hundred children in a Training School that is used fully. Yet the first school proudly boasts of its superior Training School facilities of twenty pupils for each student teacher. There must be more sense and sanity in this matter than a mere abstract ratio, and the only way to make real progress in this matter is to put sense and sanity into our statement of standards.

We must do something more than to state in our standards what the prevailing facts are. We can get averages, medians, quartiles, modes, deviations, correlations, and even coefficients of correlation without ever touching or approaching the heart of these matters. There is no substitute for downright thinking. Dr. Palmer used to say: "We can not grow rich simply by taking in each other's washing."

I have not forgotten my topic. Thus far, I have been discussing the *studying* of our standards. When a committee, such as I have proposed, has really studied one or more of these standards as related to function, it should submit its findings to the membership of this body at least a month before our annual meeting time together with a little hint of the considerations that have influenced its thinking. In the following month most of us could and would do a little thinking. When we finally meet, we could, after a reasonable amount of discussion, vote intelligently on the proposed modification of one or more standards. The whole set of standards at one time would probably cause indigestion. Really, the development of standards for our rapidly emerging Teachers Colleges is more than a day's work. There are some who are impatient because there is no Moses to bring us down an inscribed tablet from the mountain top.

But I take it that *enforcing* these standards is really the question of the hour. Some are impatient to get the job done. There are the examples of other self-constituted accrediting agencies. Some of these agencies have inspectors and employ pains and penalties whenever they can. A professional endowment fund solicitor called on me last May for a five hundred dollar contribution toward a \$500,000 fund for a small denominational college. I sympathetically asked why the school needed this additional endowment and the solicitor told me that a certain voluntary collegiate standardizing agency (name given on request) would not permit graduates of this particular college to enter the graduate schools of its constituent members unless the college in question had a productive endowment of a certain amount, which amount would be reached by adding \$500,000 to what the institution already had. I once knew of a high school that was stricken from the "accredited list" of a certain standardizing agency because this high school employed a manual training teacher

who did not have a degree. Another favorite method of enforcing standards is that of establishing grades or classes of institutions, such as A, B, C, etc., or on a percentage scale. The intent of all such schemes of standardization is to coerce the institution into compliance by means of the institution's desire to stand well in the estimation of inferiors, equals, or superiors. Failure to meet such standards is often used by executives with their lay boards as a reason for forward steps of various kinds.

There are various ways in which our Association might proceed with enforcement.

We might devise an annual report which would involve all of our standards in such a way that the results could be tabulated and published. Each one could then know what others are actually doing and compare to his heart's content. Such information, even in tabulated statistical form, would be worth more in our annual publication than are such essays as I am now uttering. How much the information would be worth would depend entirely on the use which we, individually and institutionally, made of it.

We might easily go a step further in this matter and work out a weighted value for each standard on a 100 point or a 1000 point scale. When this had been worked out on a fairly satisfactory basis, we could easily give each school a rating for each standard and a total rating. This would be busy work for the Secretary or for the Committee on Standards.

If this is not strenuous enough, we might employ a full-time Secretary and have him visit the institutions for a matter of two or three days each, checking up attainments and performances in terms of our adopted standards. It would keep him pretty busy to get around once a year and his traveling expenses would be large. It could be done, however, at an expense of \$15,000 a year. Could we raise that amount of money? I think we could. We now have a membership of 150 institutions. If each paid \$100, there would be \$15,000 available. This would provide \$10,000 for salary and \$5000 for expenses. We might like this visitor well enough the first time he came around to give him a few meals and an occasional night's lodging. By the time our welcome wore out, our membership would probably have increased sufficiently to compensate for lack of subsequent local generosity. It is also probable that such a person could talk helpfully to faculties and entertainingly to students for which service an institution could pay \$100 from its treasury. If the treasury couldn't stand such a strain, a pie social, a minstrel show, a tea *dansant*, or something else could be arranged and the proceeds applied to this somewhat worthy cause. Either of the financial schemes suggested is better than a \$100 membership fee, because the latter would cause comment and criticism. The criticism would be unmerited, to be sure, but there is no necessity for even inviting it.

An expert could not, of course, do justice to any one of our schools in a two-day visit, but he could look at us and we could get his point of view. His mission would be a twofold one. He should judge us in terms of our

association's standards, and then give us a bit of advice as to how we may improve. This traveling expert's ratings should be published annually, but he ought to be elected for life at the beginning of his term. If we could gain the cooperation of all teacher-preparation agencies, we could easily support two or three traveling secretaries.

Another plan has been suggested, viz.: that we ask one of the Foundations to assume financial responsibility for two or more traveling and standardizing secretaries who would devote their entire time to institutions that prepare teachers. Our membership would entertain sharply divergent views on this matter and it is doubtful if we could keep "peace in the family" under affirmative action on this proposal. Personally, I can see no reason for such a plan save only the eagerness to have the deed done quickly. We shall all be stronger and have more self-respect if we do it ourselves. We shall have to calm some of our impatient members by assuring them of their leadership. Some, too, will make slow progress towards the standards of the largest and richest of our membership. "The longest way around is the shortest way through" many complicated human problems.

This whole matter of enforcing our standards does not seem to me to be anything like as important as the setting up of reasonable standards and finding out what things may with sanity be standardized. We must remember that the gravity of the situation isn't equally intense at all places and that the most important thing for us to do, individually and collectively, is to develop institutions that will actually prepare teachers who can do teaching of the type that ought to be done in all the public school-rooms of our country. There are many things for which we ought "to stand hard" and the things for which we do stand hard—and these only—are our standards.

As a voluntary organization, we do not have the authority of a state. Each institution has only a limited authority. In the long run, individual and institutional *loyalty* to the cause for whose advancement we exist will bring better results than an "appeal to Cæsar." The sweet reasonableness of standards, the wholesome results that flow from their applications to our institutions—these, rather than enforcement, should be in the forefront of our thinking.

MEMBERSHIP LIST

1926

Alabama

Florence State Normal School Henry J. Willingham
 Troy State Normal School E. M. Shackelford

Arizona

Flagstaff Northern Arizona Normal School F. A. Cotton
 Tempe Tempe State Teachers College A. J. Matthews

Arkansas

Conway Arkansas State Teachers College B. W. Torreyson

California

Arcata Humboldt State Teachers College N. B. Van Matre
 Fresno State Teachers College C. L. McLane
 San Diego State Teachers College E. L. Hardy
 San Francisco State Teachers College Frederic Burk
 San Jose State Teachers College W. W. Kemp
 Santa Barbara State Teachers College C. L. Phelps

Colorado

Greeley Colorado State Teachers College G. W. Frasier
 Gunnison Western State College of Colorado Samuel Quigley

Connecticut

Danbury State Normal School Lothrop Higgins
 New Britain State Normal School Marcus White
 New Haven State Normal School J. L. Meader
 Willimantic State Normal School George Shafer

Florida

Tallahassee College of Education of Florida State College for
 Women N. M. Salley

Georgia

Athens State Normal School J. M. Pound
 Milledgeville Georgia State College for Women M. M. Parks
 Valdosta Georgia State Woman's College R. H. Powell

Hawaii

Honolulu Territorial Normal and Training School B. O. Wist

Idaho

Albion State Normal School C. E. Bocock
 Lewiston State Normal School J. E. Turner

Illinois

Carbondale Southern Illinois State Normal University H. W. Shryock
 Charleston Eastern Illinois State Teachers College L. C. Lord
 Chicago College of Education, University of Chicago W. S. Gray
 DeKalb Northern Illinois State Teachers College J. S. Brown
 Macomb Western Illinois State Teachers College W. P. Morgan
 Normal Illinois State Normal University David Felmley

Indiana

Muncie The Ball Teachers College B. J. Burris
 Terre Haute Indiana State Normal School L. N. Hines

Iowa

Cedar Falls State Teachers College H. H. Seerley

Kansas

Emporia Kansas State Teachers College T. W. Butcher
 Hays Kansas State Teachers College W. A. Lewis
 Pittsburg Kansas State Teachers College W. A. Brandenburg

Kentucky

Bowling Green West Kentucky State Teachers College and Normal
 School H. H. Cherry
 Louisville Louisville Normal School Eliz. Breckenridge
 Morehead Kentucky State Normal School F. C. Button
 Murray State Normal School J. W. Carr
 Richmond East Kentucky State Normal School and Teachers
 College T. J. Coates

Louisiana

Natchitoches Louisiana State Normal College V. L. Roy

Maine

Farmington State Normal School W. G. Mallett
 Gorham State Normal School W. E. Russell

Maryland

Frostburg	State Normal School	J. L. Dunkle
Towson	Maryland State Normal School	Lida Lee Tall

Massachusetts

Boston	Teachers College of the City of Boston	W. C. Boyden
Bridgewater	State Normal School	Arthur Boyden
Frammingham	State Normal School	James Chalmers
Hyannis	State Normal School	F. A. Bagnall
North Adams	State Normal School	R. L. Smith
Salem	State Normal School	J. A. Pitman
Worcester	State Normal School	W. B. Aspinwell

Michigan

Kalamazoo	Western State Normal School	D. B. Waldo
Marquette	Northern State Normal School	J. M. Munson
Mt. Pleasant	Central Michigan Normal School	E. C. Warriner
Ypsilanti	Michigan State Normal College	Chas. McKenny

Minnesota

Bemidji	Bemidji Teachers College	M. W. Deputy
Duluth	State Teachers College	E. W. Bohannon
Mankato	State Teachers College	C. H. Cooper
Moorhead	State Teachers College	R. B. MacLean
St. Cloud	State Teachers College	J. C. Brown
Winona	State Teachers College	G. E. Maxwell

Mississippi

Hattiesburg	State Teachers College	Joe Cook
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Missouri

Cape Girardeau	Southeast Missouri State Teachers College	J. A. Serena
Kansas City	Teachers College, Kansas City	G. W. Diemer
Kirkville	Northeast Missouri State Teachers College	Eugene Fair, John Kirk, Presi- dent Emeritus
Maryville	Northwest Missouri State Teachers College	Uel Lamkin
St. Louis	Harris Teachers College	J. L. Purdom
Springfield	Southwest Missouri State Teachers College	Clyde Hill
Warrensburg	Central Missouri State Teachers College	E. L. Hendricks

Nebraska

Chadron	Nebraska State Normal School and Teachers College	R. Elliott
Kearney	Nebraska State Normal School and Teachers College	Geo. Martin
Peru	Nebraska State Normal School and Teachers College	W. R. Pate
Wayne	Nebraska State Normal School and Teachers College	U. S. Conn

New Hampshire

Keene	State Normal School	Wallace Mason
Plymouth	State Normal School	Ernest Silver

New Jersey

Trenton	State Normal School	D. C. Bliss
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New Mexico

East Las Vegas	New Mexico Normal University	Frank Carroon
Silver City	New Mexico State Teachers College	A. O. Bowden

New York

Albany	State College for Teachers	A. R. Brubacher
Brockport	State Normal School	A. C. Thompson
Buffalo	State Normal School	H. W. Rockwell
Fredonia	State Normal School	H. Burdge
New Paltz	State Normal School	L. Van den Berg
New York City	Teachers College of Columbia University	J. E. Russell
Oswego	State Normal and Training School	J. G. Riggs

North Carolina

Boone	Appalachian State Normal School	B. B. Daugherty
Greenville	East Carolina Teachers College	R. H. Wright

North Dakota

Dickinson	State Normal School	S. T. May
Ellendale	State Normal and Industrial School	R. M. Black
Mayville	State Normal School	C. C. Swain
Valley City	State Teachers College	C. E. Allen
Minot	State Teachers College	Geo. McFarland

Ohio

Akron	University of Akron Teachers College	W. J. Bankes
Athens	College of Education, Ohio University	Thomas McCracken
Bowling Green	State Normal College	H. B. Williams
Cincinnati	College of Education, University of Cincinnati	L. A. Peckstein

Cleveland	Junior Teachers College of Cleveland, School of Education	Charles W. Hunt
	Senior Teachers College of Cleveland, School of Education	H. Irwin
Kent	State Normal College	J. E. McGilvrey
Oxford	Teachers College of Miami University	H. C. Minnich
Oklahoma		
Ada	East Central State Teachers College	A. Linscheid
Alva	Northwestern State Teachers College	J. P. Battenberg
Durant	Southeastern State Teachers College	H. E. Bennett
Edmund	Central State Teachers College	John Mitchell
Tahlequah	Northeastern State Teachers College	M. P. Hammond
Weatherford	Southwestern State Teachers College	J. W. Turner
Oregon		
Monmouth	Oregon Normal School	J. S. Landers
Pennsylvania		
Bloomsburg	Bloomsburg State Normal School	G. C. L. Reimer
Clarion	Clarion State Normal School	C. C. Green
E. Stroudsburg	East Stroudsburg State Normal School	T. T. Allen
Kutztown	Keystone State Normal School	A. C. Rothermel
Indiana	State Normal School	J. A. H. Keith
Slippery Rock	Slippery Rock State Normal School	E. L. Eisenberg
Rhode Island		
Providence	Rhode Island College of Education	J. L. Alger
South Carolina		
Clemson College	Clemson Agricultural College	Wm. Riggs
Rock Hill	Winthrop College	D. B. Johnson
South Dakota		
Aberdeen	Northern Normal and Industrial School	H. W. Foght
Madison	Eastern State Normal School	E. C. Higbie
Spearfish	Spearfish Normal School	E. C. Woodburn
Springfield	Southern State Normal School	C. G. Lawrence
Tennessee		
Johnson City	East Tennessee State Teachers College	Charles C. Sherrot
Nashville	George Peabody College for Teachers	Bruce Payne
Texas		
Alpine	Sul Ross State Teachers College	H. W. Morelock
Canyon	West Texas State Teachers College	C. A. Hill
Commerce	East Texas State Teachers College	S. H. Whitley
Denton	North Texas State Teachers College	R. L. Marquis
El Paso	Junior College, City of El Paso	F. H. Roberts
Huntsville	Sam Houston State Teachers College	H. F. Estill
Nacogdoches	Stephen F. Austin State Teachers College	A. W. Birdwell
San Marcos	Southwest Texas State Teachers College	C. E. Evans
Utah		
Salt Lake City	School of Education in University of Utah	Milton Bennion
Virginia		
East Radford	State Teachers College	J. P. McConnell
Farmville	State Normal School for Women	J. L. Jarman
Fredericksburg	State Teachers College	A. B. Chandler
Harrisonburg	State Teachers College	Samuel Duke
Washington		
Bellingham	Washington State Normal School	C. H. Fisher
Cheney	Washington State Normal School	N. D. Showalter
Ellensburg	Washington State Normal School	G. H. Black
West Virginia		
Athens	Concord State Normal School	C. C. Rossey
Fairmont	State Normal School	Jos. Rosier
Huntington	Marshall College	M. P. Shawkey
Shepherdstown	Shepherd College State Normal School	W. H. S. White
West Liberty	West Liberty State Normal School	Howard McGinnis
Wisconsin		
Eau Claire	State Normal School	H. A. Schofield
La Crosse	State Normal School	E. L. Smith
Menomonie	Stout Institute	Burton Nelson
Oshkosh	State Normal School	H. A. Brown
River Falls	State Normal School	J. H. Ames
Stevens Point	State Normal School	J. F. Sims
Whitewater	State Normal School	F. S. Hyer

Department of Visual Instruction

THE DEPARTMENT OF VISUAL INSTRUCTION was organized at the Oakland-San Francisco Convention in July, 1923. See *Proceedings*, 1923: 85-A.

The officers of the Department for the year 1926-27 are: *President*, Ernest L. Crandall, Director of Lectures and Visual Instruction, Public Schools, New York City; *Vice-President*, Murray A. Dalman, Director, Department of Reference and Research, Indianapolis Public Schools, Indianapolis, Ind.; *Secretary-Treasurer*, A. C. Balcom, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Newark, N. J.; *Executive Committee*: Mary F. Mooney, Director, Department of Texts and Libraries, City Hall, San Francisco, Calif.; C. F. Hoban, State Director of Visual Instruction, Harrisburg, Pa. This Department meets once each year, in June. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1923: 85-A 1924: 963-985 1925: 864-871

A CHILDREN'S MUSEUM AND HOW ANY TOWN CAN GET ONE

ANNA BILLINGS GALLUP, CURATOR-IN-CHIEF, CHILDREN'S MUSEUM
BROOKLYN, N. Y.

KNOWLEDGE ITSELF all children love. It is the labor of acquiring knowledge they find distasteful. Inject happiness into the process of learning and you turn the child's work into educational play.

A door of opportunity to engage in this kind of play swung wide when the Brooklyn Children's Museum was opened as a new department of the Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences. For a home, this museum was given a dignified mansion in a residential section of Brooklyn. Thus came a unique institution, the first of its kind, which has attracted the attention of educators the world around.

Through its hospitable portals in the last quarter of a century 4,000,000 children have passed into a wonder world of joyous experiences—experiences which for them have forged the keys of understanding. The old Adams homestead through whose halls once romped a gay family of eleven children, has since become a second home to these 4,000,000 and more.

Here the child finds his needs are met. His questions are answered when he asks them. His impulses to do things, to handle objects, to discover facts are encouraged. Here in a friendly, sympathetic atmosphere created for him he can investigate and experiment to his heart's content.

The child's natural habitat is under the open sky with birds and flowers and bees. His Museum is a bit of all outdoors brought within four walls—giving back to him what man-built brick and mortar cities have taken away—some knowledge about the world in which he lives—to him so new, so strange, and wonderful. It is, in very truth, a highly specialized version of the museum idea created primarily for him, developed on his own psychology, and continually adapting its resources to his specific requirements.

The Brooklyn Children's Museum bases its appeal to young people on natural history in its very broadest sense. It presents this subject in story-telling exhibits placed in light, colorful settings.

Twelve exhibition rooms, thus equipped welcome its growing visitors to a varied and perpetual feast.

A large double room is devoted to the birds of Brooklyn. These are displayed according to the season when they appear in the streets and parks. Assurance that the bird friends the child makes in the museum will one day greet him in the open, leads many a young observer afield, armed with a bird glass borrowed from the museum. Notebooks and excited accounts of first adventures in birdland bring convincing proofs that a wholesome interest is actively at work.

Moths, butterflies, caterpillars, and beetles of Brooklyn, a hive of living bees and a great many gorgeous foreign species of insects make the insect room a veritable rendezvous for young people at all seasons. Exposure

to its educational displays fired one boy with a zeal for insect lore that wrought his way through the University and eventually saved from a threatening insect plague, the wheat crop of all Indiana.

To the mineral room with its gems, bright agates, colorful crystals useful metallic ores, its blast furnace and its hand specimens, belongs the credit of inspiring one boy to become a curator of minerals and two to qualify as mining engineers.

The evolutionary story of animal life, set forth in two rooms, is the lure of everyone who loves animals and the lone hope of many a high school pupil lost in the maze of first-year biology. Incidentally one youngster who frequented the animal rooms, to his surprise found at the beginning of his Freshman year in Columbia, that he was able to claim recognition for what the Brooklyn Children's Museum had taught him, in the form of one year's credit in biology.

History and Geography, presented in a children's museum way, displace the concepts of time and space with that which the child considers present day living. In the History Room, Miles Standish, a six-inch costumed figure, in miniature setting, is, to all intents and purposes "the brave Captain of Plymouth, small of stature and fiery of temper."

Geography, as presented in the Museum is a "round the world" tour to every little visitor. For a moment, imagine yourself there, a visitor. Enter one dark room, the only one in the museum, push the electric button and you are at an oasis in the Sahara Desert. The camels are resting quietly, Bedouins are feasting on the dates gathered in the palm grove of the oasis, the tent is spread, and a Berber traveler arrives from the distant horizon that hazes off into gold and crimson. Yes it is real. A small child gazing into this redness felt it and unconsciously raising his left foot, ejaculated, "Gee, but it's hot there!" One step more, another button pressed, and you are in Greenland with the Smith Sound Eskimo and his dogs, harpooning the walrus. Another hop takes you to a quiet, verdant South Sea Island with its bananas and cocoanut palms and lazy natives in their outrigger dugout. Ten minutes more and you have out done Lieutenant Commander Byrd. You have glimpsed the primitive peoples of the zones without a moment of discomfort, a loss of luggage, or a cent of expense. You may come again for a miniature world tour of miniature geographical models. Emerge you will, traveled, experienced, and with a background of knowledge to add life to geography recitations and zest to your reading.

A children's museum is no static thing. It is dynamic, practicable—made so by a variety of features, a valuable working library and librarians who delight in serving children; by organized lecture courses that relate the riches of the museum to the school, the home life, the reading and the travels of every child; by games played in every exhibition room, under the guidance of skilful instructors; and by its clubs that furnish attractive activities for children of all ages, including a program of summer field trips. Thus, in a children's museum, the leisure hours of children are

utilized according to the child's own tastes, for the upbuilding of cultural, protecting ideas which are elemental in the formation and retention of worthy life habits. The careers of young people who have grown up under its protection constitute one of the most encouraging and inspiring chapters in the history of education, a chapter you would rejoice to hear were there time to relate it.

The second part of my topic "How Any Town Can Get One" has a practical significance which no community is too small to consider.

I am reminded of one of our boys who became a professor of plant breeding at Cornell University. He spent his summers in the country and his winters in the museum. "Miss Gallup," he said, "If I could only have this museum in the country, I wouldn't ask anything more. Then whatever I might find of interest out-of-doors, I could bring to the museum and study up." To him the museum was not only a pleasure resort but a reference place, a center of information which never failed to help him.

Your town should give to its children this very thing.

Every community has its latent enthusiasm for the well-being of children. The task before you is to arouse and capitalize this enthusiasm.

Boston has a Children's Museum because one college professor glimpsed the possibilities of such an educational device and imparted his vision to a group of philanthropists and educators.

In far off Australia and New Zealand this friend of childhood, the Children's Museum Idea, is struggling for practical expression.

Here, in America, organized groups prove their ideals to be the most practical agencies we know.

Presumably every one of you educators is a potential organizer qualified to bring together picked men and women for such a purpose.

The motive power of your group must be an understanding of the contribution a Children's Museum should make to the lives of children in your town.

Vision for the work must evolve from a consideration of local resources and a study of the practice of other children's museums.

When that becomes clear in the minds of a few leaders, it is time to make out a program of activities.

The simplest plan, one which has repeatedly been successful, might be to invest your initial fund in the salary of a carefully chosen director.

Somewhere in your town or village there is unused space favorably located, which the director, with the backing of enthusiastic trustees, can transform into a museum. Space and a little money will insure a promising start.

Collections will inevitably begin to pour in. The resources of the community will surprise you. Children will throng your halls and corridors and there will be added to their educational equipment a new center which will delight them and become the pride of the grown ups.

THE ART MUSEUM AND ITS RELATION TO THE SCHOOL—ABSTRACT

ROSSITER HOWARD, ASSISTANT DIRECTOR OF THE CLEVELAND MUSEUM OF
ART, CLEVELAND, OHIO

The modern museum of art is increasingly spending its energies in making its collections work. It is no longer considered as a storehouse of rare and costly objects, but as a social institution for the enjoyment and education of the public.

The museum can serve the school public by providing such high standards of beauty in original works of art as are analogous to the standards available in the field of literature. It is for the schools to provide practice; it is for the art gallery to provide a fund of visual memories.

There are two grave dangers. One is that the teacher of appreciation shall substitute knowledge about art for acquaintance with it. The second danger is that the teacher's taste for art of the last generation will tend to prevent the child from free enjoyment of the new and the fresh.

The museum of art which includes many arts of many ages may furnish an enormous wealth of visual material in making alive and real the cultures of other lands and other ages, valuable especially in geography, and in history.

The museum has a staff steeped in this material; the schools a staff expert in teaching. The ideal arrangement is for the schools to station instructors at the museum where they may be filled with museum knowledge and may contribute to the museum's need for educational principles. Museums for the most part sniff at educational principle, and how vast is the need to learn.

The museum cannot be used as a daily laboratory for many schools. But it can be used as an occasional laboratory for all schools and a frequent one for nearby schools. The latter may experiment and show the way. If the museum visits are to prove of permanent value to a majority of the children, there must be a certainty of inspiration and of such relation with the work in the schools that the pleasure of the visit may be built into the child's thinking, related to his daily experience, not forgotten when the examinations are passed.

THE SCHOOL BOARD AND VISUAL INSTRUCTION— ABSTRACT

THOMAS E. FINEGAN, FORMER STATE COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION
HARRISBURG, PA.

Visual instruction should show actual class work. Museums, art galleries, and industry should be visited to enlarge the child's horizon if possible. If not, we should send them samples. It is good actually to inappropriating money. In the meantime visual instruction workers must in museum work in general terms. Museum material should be used in

classrooms not merely for lecture purposes. The time should come when every classroom in every school in all our cities has a library of visual aids to use so as to enlarge the child's vision and clinch the point of the lesson, not to add unnecessary distraction.

All workers in the field of visual instruction should come together. The academy of visual instruction and the committee on visual instruction, of which I am chairman, should work in this department. All forces in the field showing united action should then bring pressure to bear on boards of education, securing funds and recognition. Boards of education should refuse as business men to give this until they are shown that it is practical, valuable and material available. Then, they will be justified in appropriating money. In the meantime visual instruction workers must interest influential bodies in the community in the work.

The Eastman Kodak Company through its two years experiment on which it is now embarked will develop the teaching film. This means much to visual instruction in this country. At the end of this time on experimentation I believe the situation will be similar to the textbook situation as it is today. It is important to get together practical needs. A committee has been appointed to study for a year (subcommittee of the Finegan Committee, Mr. Crandall, chairman). This is preliminary to interesting boards of education.

HOW ARID LANDS AND SNOW WATER HELP FEED US— ABSTRACT

E. WINIFRED CRAWFORD, TEACHER OF GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY, STATE
NORMAL SCHOOL, MONTCLAIR, N. J.

The children talked together of the food that they had had for lunch and questioned from where these things had come. For answer, we turned to the movements of freight listed in the morning commercial newspapers and found out from where many of the fruits and vegetables, that enter the Philadelphia markets, had come. We saw stereopticon pictures of some of the same kinds of food, that we had had for lunch, growing. With the aid of the map we traced the journey of those that had come from the west back to the west. We studied what we meant by the word west and partially investigated its topography from a physical wall map, its temperature, winds, rainfall, and soil from the respective maps. Our results we tested by the requirements we knew food needed to grow. A sufficient rainfall was the chief necessity lacking thus making the land arid. Yet these were some of the same regions that were shipping us food. The children questioned and asked, "How arid land could give us food." The possible sources of obtaining water were suggested, the one of the winter snowfalls was selected for investigation, so we studied pictures of the mountain snows. Thus our problem became, "How Arid Lands and Snow Water Help Feed Us."

In working out the problem the children suggested such questions as these:

How can the snow water be kept till it is needed?

How can the snow water be taken to the fields?

How are fields irrigated?

How much land is possible of irrigation?

How do people live on irrigated lands?

We solved the problem by answering the questions through a study of stereopticon pictures. We saw the narrow canyons and fairly level portions of the valleys of the Shoshone river of Wyoming and the Salt river of Arizona which were selected for dam and reservoir sights and realized the reasons for selection. We saw the different ways of conveying the water down the mountains across the valleys and plateaus, to the fields. We studied the methods of irrigating the farms and saw the same kind of crops that we ate being raised. Pictures of other important crops were studied too.

The way the people lived, because of the existing conditions, and the way the children played were thought out by the children. The amount of land irrigated was seen on maps showing government and private projects. The work of the reclamation bureau was noted. Methods of irrigating land near home were suggested by the children and seen in the pictures.

The foods raised on irrigated lands were seen coming eastward to the freight yards of Philadelphia, to be advertised in the newspapers, to find their way to the stores, and to the children's tables. The lesson concluded with the solution of the problem, a recognition of the advantages of irrigation, and questions which formulated themselves into another problem of whether irrigated lands or lands of moderate rainfall were the best for agriculture.

SEEING AND DOING

JAMES J. WALSH, MEDICAL DIRECTOR OF FORDHAM UNIVERSITY SCHOOL
OF SOCIOLOGY AND PROFESSOR OF PHYSIOLOGICAL PSYCHOLOGY
AT THE CATHEDRAL COLLEGE, NEW YORK CITY

The question of visual instruction and its value has always seemed to me to need no argument in its favor since all one needs to do to be convinced that seeing is not only followed by believing but also by intellectual acceptance and is so taken to heart as to result in doing, is just to look around even a little bit. It is the young particularly who are capable of being instructed and it is they who illustrate how much visual instruction means for them. They do what they see others do. Let someone who attracts their attention start to do something that is rather different from what the rest of the generation has been doing and the young folks will all follow suit. Mrs. Irene Castle, I am sorry not to be able to place her name more exactly, but everyone will recognize the difficulty, sailed

away from us to Europe the other day regretting that she had started the fashion of bobbed hair because she said it made the young women too manly, but now it is too late for that. They have seen it and they are all doing it. Originally I believe it was presumed that it would save a great deal of trouble in caring for the hair, though as a matter of fact I am informed by those who seem to know something about the subject that on the contrary it adds not a little to the expense, especially if one wants to keep it in wave, and of course we men are objecting because now when we want to get our hair cut we are asked to wait at the barber shop and then we are charged something more than double what we had to pay because the new traffic in the matter is willing to pay the higher prices.

Of course it is not only the female of the species, to use Kipling's rather crude expression, that is thus led on from sight through suggestion to accomplishment. The young men are activated in just the same way. If one young fellow in high school puts some slickative gloss or balmy unguent on his hair in order to keep his recalcitrant locks in place and have his hair go glossily smooth back from his forehead to his poll, of course all the others must do it. I have to talk at high school commencements every now and then confessing frankly that if I knew half as much now as I did, or rather thought I did, at their age, the world would be making rather wonderful advances in knowledge. It is amusing to have a group of several hundred boys all go by with hair properly slicked for the reception of their graduation certificates. Of course the practice is not new, for I remember that a very large number of the rising generation were using hair oil of various kinds and scented bear grease some fifty years ago. The modern slickative will go out just as the bear grease did but something like it will come back in another generation when somebody else starts the fashion and the young fellows get their eye on it and feel the urge to go and do likewise.

I wonder if you recall how badly you felt whenever something compelled you to be out of the fashion when you were young. There are tragedies in life but there is nothing quite so bad as that. The one great purpose of nature is to make men as individual as possible, so much so that of all the billions of human beings who have ever lived, it can be said with reasonable certainty that no two have ever been exactly alike. This is true not only as regards the external appearance of the body but also its internal makeup. Not only every square centimeter of our superficies is different, but every cubic centimeter of our constituent tissues. The one purpose of youth, however, is to get away from individuality and be as much like other people around them as possible so that whenever they see something they must go do it. Lincoln once said, "God must have loved the common people very much, He made so many of them." Well, God must have loved individuality even more, He made so much of it. But youth will have none of it. They would not be different from other people for the world. They see other people doing things and they are impelled by a practically uncontrollable impetus to do what they see the

others doing. This is of course an exemplification of the herd instinct as we have it in animals or what we call the psychology of the mob or the psychology of the crowd.

I believe that it is no longer considered scientific to say that we are descended from the monkeys. One distinguished German anthropologist suggested that man is not descended from the monkey because the monkey is descended from man. You pay your money and you take your choice. My dear old teacher Virchow in Berlin used to say that there was just as little chance of the cow being in man's ancestry as the monkey and that indeed in a good many people there seemed to be more of the bovine traits than of the simian traits. When I see the rising generation so intent on imitation, that is on aping each other, I often have the feeling that there must be something of the ape in our ancestry. Long ago I believe they used to capture monkeys for exhibition in the museums by taking advantage of this tendency to imitate. Little boots were prepared and were carried into the forest and placed in a row beneath trees where the monkeys were chattering in the branches utterly out of reach. The men would then take off their own boots, arrange them in a row, and then put them on again. They would repeat this several times, being quite sure that the monkeys would observe them very faithfully, and then they would leave the little boots at the foot of the tree and wander off for some distance. After a while the monkeys would come down and after some little hesitancy would approach the boots and after a while begin to slip them on. They were not nearly so easy to get off as they were to get on, so after a number of the monkeys were properly accoutred with the boots the men would come back and capture the monkeys with nets because of course it had become so difficult as to be practically impossible for the monkeys to climb back into the trees with the boots that they had so foolishly but apishly put on.

Of course it is not only in our generation or in recent times that the young folks have been doing this sort of thing. I am sure you must all recall that old story of Confucius that has come down to us for about 2500 years now. "One day as he was passing through a field, he noticed a man engaged in snaring birds, and placing them in different cages. Kung Fu-tsz looked on for a time, while his students were wondering why their teacher took such an interest in such a simple thing. He finally went up to the man, and said:

" 'I do not see any old birds here; where have you put them?'

" 'The old birds,' replied the man, 'are too wary to be caught. They are on the lookout, and if they see a net or cage, far from falling into the snare, they fly away and never return. The young ones, which keep with them, also escape. I can catch only such as fly out by themselves, or go in company with other young birds. If I do sometimes catch an old bird, it is because it follows the young ones.'

" 'Did you hear that?' asked Confucius, turning to his students, 'The young birds escape only when they keep with the old ones. It is always

so with us. Our young people are led astray by boldness, want of forethought, inattention, and by thinking that they know more than older people. And when the old ones are caught, it is because they are foolishly attached to the young, and allow themselves to be led astray by them.' ”

Of course I know that such expressions as these represent a cardinal heresy in our day for the young folks are quite sure that the old folks are old fogies and that they are engaged in liberating the race from a number of unfortunate repressions and taboos and prohibitions and teaching humanity the right road to liberty and of course to the pursuit of happiness. It is always more than a little amusing to note what interesting motives the young folks attribute to themselves whenever they do things that are different from the preceding generations. They reason out very nicely the why and the wherefore of their conduct and lay the flattering unction to their souls that now at last humanity is coming into its own freedom and felicity. All the time, however, they are only following the oldest instinct that humanity has, the one that awakens earliest in the child, the faculty of imitation. Children see things done and then they want to do them. It is a very fortunate thing for us that that is so because that simplifies the earliest problems of education that we have very much. Very probably one of the hardest things in the world to do with safety because it requires such a nice adjustment of a large number of muscles is walking and running, and yet the child if left quite to itself will learn to do both of these activities by the time that it is a year and a half old and will do them very well.

Seeing is doing, unless one has character and judgment and exercises them. Even then example is ever so much better than precept and visual education becomes the strongest force that we have. Long ago Horace said that the mind is affected much less surely by hearing than it is by seeing, and that maxim continues to be as true today as it ever was, though of course a great deal depends on the amount of attention that is paid. Just watch the young folk pay attention to the new fashions as they come in and then you will see why it is that the step from seeing to doing is so short for they fairly try to see through any young person who appears on the street with anything new on.

The step from seeing to doing is so short, however, that it becomes very easy to understand how important it is that the things that young folks see should not be such as a rule as tempt them to do unsocial things. It is easy to understand that seeing the pictures, especially in our tabloid newspapers, of criminals of various kinds and above all of their crimes posed in various ways so as to present the crime in its last details, is very likely to produce suggestions that will at least lead to tendencies to similar activities. I believe that the police in certain cities refuse to permit moving pictures which display crimes of various kinds and especially such as are accomplished very cleverly unless the punishment of the crime is presented before the end of the reel. It was found that pickpocketing and sneak thievery of various kinds increased in amount when certain reels were shown exhibiting the criminals successfully accomplishing their pur-

poses. Undoubtedly not a little of the increase of crime by violence is due to the influence of this sort of thing. I lecture every year at certain of the states prisons and the one very noticeable feature of state prison life in recent years is that the long-term prisoners are being recruited from ever younger criminals. The twenty-three years men used to be middle aged men as a rule, or forty or so, somewhat hardened in crime. Now they are between twenty and twenty-five and they deserve the long sentences because they have been committing crimes deliberately in which human life was put in danger and sometimes was actually taken.

This problem of seeing, doing, is evidently too large for us here this afternoon to do more than touch upon but at least some of these reflections may help to emphasize the fact that visual instruction must represent the keynote of education though of course the individual attention of the pupil, meaning the scholar and not his eye, must be caught if any good is to be accomplished.

REPORT OF PRESIDENT OF THE DEPARTMENT OF VISUAL INSTRUCTION

ERNEST L. CRANDALL, DIRECTOR OF LECTURES AND VISUAL INSTRUCTION,
PUBLIC SCHOOLS, NEW YORK CITY

The year just past has been a time of great encouragement for those interested in visual instruction, as evidenced by increased appropriations in many commonwealths and municipalities. St. Louis, Detroit, Chicago, Los Angeles, Newark and New York have all enlarged their appropriations by anywhere from 25 to 200 percent. A further evidence of progress lies in increased attention to visual instruction in school administration, as for example, in the appointment of a state director in Pennsylvania. All this development has come in part at least as the result of years of agitation, exploitation and experiment on the part of individuals and organizations, culminating in the creation of this department.

The concrete activities of the department during the past year are best exemplified by the labors of the committees which report today, and by the unique program offered at this session. The responsive and enthusiastic appreciation of several hundred teachers has borne testimony to the wisdom of providing on our programs concrete demonstrations of classroom work, with every conceivable visual aid, and the showing of films, and other visual apparatus and materials. For example, M. A. Dolman brings from Indianapolis a collection of butterflies and demonstrates a nature study lesson with Philadelphia children. G. Clyde Fisher, of the American Museum of Natural History, New York City, takes a class of blind pupils through the mazes of the solar system by means of mechanical models, utilizing their tactile sense in place of ocular vision. Miss Wilkie of Philadelphia's own Commercial Museum takes a class to Japan through the use of graphs, model specimens. These are only typical examples of concrete teaching

exemplified in a score of subjects. The breadth and flexibility of the visual method is evidenced by the fact that it has been possible within two days and in one building, to teach more than twenty classes in more than twenty subjects, utilizing more than a score of distinct visual media and teaching devices.

Noteworthy committee activities include the inquiry conducted by Superintendent David Gibbs, of Meriden, Connecticut, on the source and availability of negative photographic material throughout the country. This inquiry has been very thoroughly followed up by means of printed questionnaires but, notwithstanding the enrichment that would flow to the visual materials of the schools by the loosening up of vast storehouses of photographic negative that are now locked up in both public and commercial collections, both industrial and political groups have been slow to catch the significance of this project or reluctant to cooperate. Unless this attitude can be changed, the schools must continue to suffer from a lack of well organized photographic material although it exists in abundance in hidden depositories.

The committee on the survey of the country's educational film supply, under the direction of A. G. Balcom of Newark, N. J., has collated a mass of material too great to present as yet in organized form.

When its labors are completed, one of the most insistent queries of the classroom teacher will be definitely answered, a plaintive query that has reverberated for some five years, namely—"What films can I get that are worth showing to my children, and where can I get them?"

Other notable contributions to visual instruction progress are the study of the committee on teacher training under the direction of J. V. Aukenev of the University of West Virginia, and the recommendations of the Committee on International Cooperation, headed by Olive M. Jones, former President of the National Education Association.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

President's report—It is the purpose of this Department not merely to hold an annual meeting demonstrating as we have here during the past two days as vividly as possible, actual school work in visual instruction, but also to continue during the year actively and zealously working in the field through committees in such a way as to promote the cause of visual instruction. Such committees have been appointed by your president and have during the past year been busy. Unfortunately, all of the chairmen cannot be with us today. We shall, however, hear from each of the groups in some way.

Committee on Exchange of Photographic Negatives—Report of the Chairman, David Gibbs, Meriden, Conn. Interim report accepted. Committee to be continued for another year.

Committee on Teacher Training in Visual Instruction—Report of J. V. Aukenev, Morgantown, W. Va. Interim report accepted. Committee to be continued for another year.

Committee on Revision of Constitution—Report of John A. Hollinger, Pittsburgh, Pa. Accepted for action at next annual meeting.

Committee on Definition of Visual Instruction and Inventory of Visual Aids—C. F. Hoban, Harrisburg, Pa., Pennsylvania state department of visual instruction, chairman, reports lack of activity due to late appointment and acceptance of appointment by only two members up to the present time. These two are Mr. Barnes of Detroit and Mr. Dalman of Indianapolis.

He further stated, "A committee of fourteen—one representative from each of the Pennsylvania normal schools—has been working for the past four months on a similar study. I suggest that these fourteen and any others you choose to name be added to the committee."

It was moved, seconded, and carried that the report of this committee be accepted as an interim report, the president appoint additional members, and the chairman instructed to cooperate with the committee of fourteen referred to in his report.

Committee on Survey and Educational Film Supply—Chairman A. G. Balcom, Newark, N. J., reports through the president, due to Mr. Balcom's absence, that much material had been selected but the results had not yet been tabulated or put in proper shape. Interim report accepted. Committee to be continued for another year.

Committee on International Cooperation—Olive M. Jones, New York City, chairman, reported that due to the illness of the chairman this committee has not yet been active. Miss Jones stressed the necessity of immediate preparation for representation at the International Meeting of the World Federation of Education Associations, to be held in Toronto, August 4, 1927, at which time this Department should be represented.

Miss Jones further reported that China, Japan, Eastern Europe, and the South American countries had evidenced an interest in problems of visual instruction work as shown in their reaction at the Edinburgh meeting. They wish especially to have American assistance in preventing the exportation of such films as are now being shown their children. The statement is repeatedly made by representatives of these foreign countries that our films sent to them are of such a character that we would not allow our own children to see them, inciting to crime and wrong doing.

The chair recommended that we cooperate to this end for the present, later developing international cooperation along more definitely educational lines.

Election of Officers

President—Ernest L. Crandall, director of visual instruction, nominated by Mr. Boone, seconded by Dr. Kelley. Dr. Kelley moved that the nomination be made unanimous and the secretary directed to cast the ballot. Motion seconded.

In speaking on this nomination, Mr. Crandall mentioned the present lack of harmony among visual instructionists in the country, deplored its existence, and stressed his desire for a united front. He felt, therefore, that any group at all opposed to his renomination should have a full and free opportunity of being recorded, and asked for further nomination for president.

Mr. Toothaker moved that the nomination be closed. Motion seconded and carried. Mr. Crandall was unanimously elected and accepted the election. Mr. Crandall said, "I shall endeavor to exercise all my influence for the good of the work of visual instruction, disregarding sectional and factional differences."

Vice President:—Miss Hochheimer nominated Mr. Dalman. This was seconded by Mr. Boone. It was moved, seconded, and carried that the secretary be directed to cast one ballot, making the vote unanimous.

Secretary-Treasurer—Mr. Rogers nominated Mr. Balcom. This was seconded by Miss Hochheimer. Mrs. Ramsay nominated Miss Hochheimer, seconded by

Mrs. Dressez.

Speaking on these nominations, Miss Hochheimer stressed the need of rotation in office, dwelling on Mr. Balcom's fitness for this designation through his long years of distinguished service in the field. She further stressed the necessity for geographical nearness of the president and secretary, as a practical consideration in the conducting of the business of the Department and urged Mr. Balcom's election. Mr. Boone and Mr. Rogers were appointed tellers. Result of the vote: Mr. Balcom—12; Miss Hochheimer—5; Mr. Balcolm elected.

Members of the Executive Committee—Mary Mooney of San Francisco and C. F. Hoban of Harrisburg were unanimously elected members of the executive committee.

National Council on Education—The president announced that the Department is entitled to three representatives in the National Council of Education, terms expiring respectively in 2, 4, and 6 years. It was moved, seconded, and carried that the three officers of the Department constitute the three delegates. President for 5 years, Vice-President 4 years, and Secretary-Treasurer 2 years.

Mr. Boone moved a hearty vote of thanks to W. P. Wilson, director, Mr. Toothaker, curator, Mr. Fisher and attendants and members of the staff of the Commercial Museum of Philadelphia for the excellent, delightful, and intelligent help and cooperation in making possible and arranging the meeting of this Department. Seconded and unanimously carried. Secretary instructed to write letter of thanks.

Department of Vocational Education

THE DEPARTMENT OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION was organized as the Industrial Section at Minneapolis, Minn., August, 1875. See *Proceedings*, 1875: 100. The name was changed in 1890 to the Department of Industrial and Manual Training. See *Proceedings*, 1890: 758. In 1899 the name was changed to the Department of Manual Training. See *Proceedings*, 1899: 556. In 1914 the name was changed to the Department of Vocational Education and Practical Arts. See *Proceedings*, 1914: 565. This department cooperates with the National Vocational Guidance Association and with the National Society for Vocational Education.

The officers of the Department for the year 1926-27 are: *President*, Howard L. Briggs, Director of Vocational and Practical Arts Education, Board of Education, Cleveland, Ohio; *Vicepresident*, F. Theodore Struck, Director, Bureau of Vocational Education, Department of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Pa.; *Secretary*, N. S. Hunsdon, State Director of Industrial Education, State Board for Vocational Education, Austin, Texas. This Department meets twice each year, in February and June. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1914: 565-625	1917: 431-473	1920: 269	1922: 1465-1483	1924: 987-1015
1915: 815-847	1918: 249-271	1921: 851-858	1923: 1025-1043	1925: 872-913
1916: 461-517	1919: 271-281			

ORGANIZATION OF A PUBLIC SCHOOL IN A LARGE INDUSTRIAL CENTER—ABSTRACT

PERSIS K. MILLER, PRINCIPAL, INDUSTRIAL DEMONSTRATION SCHOOL
BALTIMORE, MD.

THE INDUSTRIAL CENTER is a water-front community in a large city. The men are stevedores for the Baltimore and Ohio and the many steamship lines in the harbor, they work in the local offices and upkeep departments of the Baltimore and Ohio; or they are attracted to Locust Point by transportation facilities, as the Baltimore Dry Docks of the Bethlehem Steel Company, the American Sugar Refinery, Simmons Bed Company, and others,—all corporations whose officials live elsewhere. The native-born, the Germans and Hungarians, the Poles and representatives of practically every country of Europe present an industrial and foreign problem typical of almost any industrial community. There is no racial question involved here.

It is a community of homes, owned not rented; stable, hardworking, honest men and women whose interests center in the affairs of their own families. The school is a part of these affairs.

The school objectives set up by parents become the fundamentals of the course of study. Their translation into terms of a curriculum and a suggestive plan of a school plant needed to carry them out were accredited by authorities in the several lines involved: the United States Bureau of Education, Johns Hopkins University, and the University of Maryland, all authorities on social problems, health, and recreation. Assisted, they were again reviewed as to their practical values and possibilities in the industrial world by the executives of the great corporations on Locust Point. The president of Baltimore Federation of Labor safeguarded the cultural education.

Strategic agents in the organization put through the above program, securing a new building which provides for a set of activities entirely new to Baltimore schools; and changed the site of the old schoolhouse from a side street to the main thoroughfare where every person in the district has to pass by it.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE TRAINING OF FOREMEN AND CITY PROGRAM FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

THOMAS DIAMOND, UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN, ANN ARBOR, MICH.

I take it that the topic assigned to me is designed to bring out whether the training of foremen is a responsibility of the state or local community. As any statement made on this question can only be an opinion, what I have to offer is merely a point of view. For this reason, I propose to state very briefly the stand I take on the question before us, give the reasons for this opinion; and then leave the remaining minutes allotted to this topic for general discussion.

I wish to take the stand that, with few exceptions, all foremen training should be considered a direct responsibility of the local authorities, and hence should be an integral part of the city program for vocational education. Furthermore, I believe that in those cities where the Y. M. C. A., Business Corporation, or other private or semi-private organizations are providing courses for foremen, the local director of vocational education is missing one of the most helpful agencies existing in his city.

Foreman as teacher—There are many in the field of public vocational education who believe that courses for foremen should be carried on by those who are charged with the responsibility for training teachers. This has led to a great deal of the work being done by representatives of the state departments or the state universities. In most cases this work has been very much worthwhile; however, I am of the opinion that those departments have no more justification for doing it than they have for providing instruction in the kindergarten.

Those who favor the work being done by the state rather than by the local community do so on the ground that the foreman is a teacher and, as such, his training is a responsibility of those in charge of the training of teachers.

No one will contend that the foreman is never called upon to teach, but it is probable that there will be some difference of opinion in regard to the time he spends on this function in relation to the time he spends on others. I believe that teaching occupies a relatively small part of his time.

As far as the doing part of the job is concerned, the main functions of a foreman are to interpret, direct and supervise. For example:

1. A skilled mechanic would be insulted if a foreman proceeded to teach him how to do a job. He needs some direction in regard to conventions and methods peculiar to the particular factory, but he needs no instruction on how to do his work. In addition to this, the worker may be confronted with some ambiguity in the orders or blueprints. When this occurs, the foreman is the one to whom he applies for an interpretation of the case.
2. If we take as another example the routine worker who works continuously on the same operation, we find just as little justification for considering the foreman as a subject for teacher training.

Probably most of the routine operations in our specialized industries can be learned by anyone of average mentality in an extremely short period. This time varies with the job from as short as fifteen minutes to a maximum of perhaps three weeks. After the worker has learned to do the job, further instruction on the manipulative processes is usually unnecessary. After the brief teaching period, the principal concern of the foreman is to see that the work is supplied with material, that the finished work is taken care of by the appropriate group, and that prompt action is taken by the repair gang if a machine needs attention.

These illustrations suggest that as far as the doing of the job is concerned, the teaching duties of a foreman are extremely light. I would venture to say that it is an unusual foreman who is called upon to spend more than one hour in any one day on instructions. I might go still further and say that on most days even this hour is eliminated.

When we turn from the doing of the job, we are likely to find that, while the foreman may not spend any more time on it, his responsibility for training his workers to understand and appreciate the problems that disturb labor is very great.

During the war we experienced a great deal of industrial unrest. Much of this was caused by a lack of understanding on the part of the workers. The problem of educating these workers was one which troubled thoughtful employers for some time until someone conceived the idea that the foreman, being closest to the worker, was in the most strategic position to teach him those principles which would enable him to understand industrial conditions. It was found however that the foremen were just as deficient in their understanding as the workers and consequently had to be taught. This led to an extension of the training to include instruction in the principles of management, and finally to the point where the foreman was being instructed in how to teach his men to do a piece of work.

I have expressed myself on the last phase of this work. There still is and probably always will be a very great need for training foremen to have an intelligent interest in, and understanding of, the problems which disturb labor. There is likely to be a similar need for providing instruction for them in the problems of management.

Both of these types of instruction may be given by a state representative, but his opportunities are seriously restricted because of his lack of personal contact with the specific problems of the group he is dealing with. It is true he may carry on a course or courses in a community for a limited period, but the discussions are likely to be rather general.

On the other hand, if the work is done by a representative of the local school authorities, he ought to have the time and opportunity to become intimately acquainted with the current specific problems of the factories he is dealing with, and thus be in a position to make the work more meaningful, and to carry on indefinitely.

Not only is this true, but certain phases of management, as well as the building up of the morale of the men by helping them think straight, are definite parts of the foreman's job. Consequently, since it is the function of the department of vocational education in any community to prepare a person to enter or to progress in his chosen job, this department is logically responsible for providing the foreman with the opportunity to so prepare himself.

Training foreman a public duty—When we begin to think of the training of foremen as a function of the department of vocational education in a city, the first reason that occurs to us is that it is a duty which the community owes to the foremen. The day has long passed when school people believed that the school is organized for the education of children under fifteen years of age. Today the tendency among school administration is to make the school a center of all the educational activities of the community.

The education provided by the public school authorities in most of our large cities extends from the kindergarten up to and including college work. Commercial training, industrial training, and even correspondence courses are offered in many of our cities. In other words, it has become the policy of the school authorities in our more progressive cities to provide educational opportunities for any group who seem likely to profit from it.

Although this policy is well established, it is unfortunate that the burden of proof in regard to the benefit which is likely to result from a new type of vocational work falls upon the director of vocational education. A still greater burden upon his shoulders is the proving that the course under consideration will ultimately prove of immense advantage to those responsible for carrying out the whole city program of education. Frequently this task is long and arduous and on many occasions it is given up as hopeless.

It is unfortunate also that there are groups in every community who have not yet become fully aware of the opportunities open to them in the public schools of their city and therefore have never made their needs known to the school authorities.

These conditions have made it possible for various private and semi-private agencies to enter the educational field and supply the demand for courses not being offered in the public schools. These agencies usually draw a heavy toll of profit from the ambitious worker before the public school officials are willing to acknowledge their responsibilities and opportunities.

Aid to cooperative courses—Another reason that might be advanced has to do with the growing demand for skilled workers. In many of our cities, those in charge of vocational education have organized cooperative courses, in forms varying with the existing opportunities, in order to cope with the demand.

As the name implies, these courses necessitate rather a close cooperation between the factories concerned and the public schools. The man who keeps the cooperative machinery working smoothly is sometimes called the coordinator.

One of the first tasks of this individual is to secure the consent of the employer to the application of the plan to his factory. After this is done, it would seem that all there remained for him to do is to find the students and set them to work. This might be true if the consenting employer could give the development of the plan his close personal attention, but it is necessary for him to delegate this responsibility to someone who is in closer touch with the boys concerned. Naturally enough, this someone is the foreman. It is true that there may be intermediary officials such as the personnel director or the supervisor of apprentices, but in the final analysis, the one man in the organization who can make or break a plan of this kind is the foreman.

There remains therefore the very serious duty of enlisting the sympathy and assistance of this man to whom the boy must report directly. Doubtless some of the unsuccessful attempts at cooperative work have proved disastrous as a result of the neglect of this precaution, because, as those of

you who are familiar with factory conditions know, any policy established in a shop without the formality of selling the idea to the foreman is likely to fall short of the expectation of its promoters.

Since the success of any program of cooperative education set up by the department of vocational education in a city is directly dependent upon the willingness of the foreman to lend his aid, those responsible for vocational education must use every possible means to insure his support.

If the foreman has been attending classes or conferences sponsored by the department of vocational education, he will be familiar with the personnel of the department, and will have acquired some knowledge of its aims and purposes. Because of this familiarity he is likely to greet cordially any representative of the department who is concerned with the administration of a cooperative group.

Aid in apprenticeship—Again, the aid of the foreman is necessary in the promotion of any effective system of apprenticeship.

While apprenticeship is not as common as it was in the earlier history of the country, a number of our more progressive tradesmen have become so concerned about the training of our future craftsmen that they have been instrumental in setting up certain standards of training to which the young workers, as well as the employers, must conform. In a great many cases, one of the standards is that the youths shall spend a certain number of hours each week in a class or school for the purpose of learning something of the theoretical side of their trade. Frequently, especially in our larger cities, this theoretical training is provided in the evening school or in separate classes under the city educational authorities. When this is the case, the department of vocational education is the one most likely to be called upon to provide the instruction. If this instruction is to be adequate, there must be a close coordination between the shop and the school. The coordinator must necessarily obtain much of his information and advice regarding the pupils from the foremen to whom the boys report. If the foremen are in sympathy with the aims and purposes of the school, they will prove to be an invaluable help in making the school function effectively. If they are not, the chances are more than even that the work will be unsuccessful.

Aid in placement—Another school activity in which the foreman may be helpful is in the placing of the pupils into suitable jobs.

Placement work has come to be recognized in many of our cities as a legitimate function of the public school and, as a general rule, this work is included in the program of the department for vocational education.

The effectiveness of a placement program depends to a large extent upon the relationship which has been built up between those responsible for the work and those who employ the product of the school. This is particularly true in regard to the foreman, the man to whom the young worker is directly responsible.

The placement officer is likely to have little difficulty in securing the support of the personnel manager, but the foreman, who is usually more

conservative in his attitude toward what he considers to be outside interference, is more difficult to reach. When an employee comes to his department through any channel other than the one he sets up he is frequently indifferent and sometimes frankly antagonistic toward him. Not only so, but he is likely to resent what he chooses to call a waste of time when a representative of the school presents himself in the shop in the interest of the young worker.

Here again, as in the case of the cooperative work, if the foreman is familiar with the aims and purposes of the department of vocational education, he is more likely to accept the individuals recommended by the school placement officer. If the public schools do not offer courses for foremen, this avenue of approach to the interest of the keyman in industry is lost and the placement work is sure to suffer as a result.

Aid in part-time education—Part-time education is still another activity for which the department of vocational education is responsible in many of our cities.

Where this type of work is carried on, difficulty is frequently encountered in securing the cooperation of the employers on account of the fact that the children must be excused from work for four or eight hours a week, according to the community.

Regardless of how willing the employer may be to help the cause of part-time education, the foreman may insist that his organization demands that his workers be on the job every working hour. When the foreman takes this stand on a question that is not vital to the firm, there are few employers who care enough about part-time education to make an issue of it with him.

If part-time education is to be successful, the foreman must be for it. He is not for it on some occasions because he knows little about the school and has little confidence in its ability to do anything for a worker. If he can be induced to attend classes conducted by the same authorities as those who are concerned with the part-time school he will, under proper instruction, develop the feeling that he is learning something about his own job. It is a short step indeed from receiving benefit oneself to believing that others may benefit.

Other illustrations might be added to those given, but perhaps sufficient has been said to emphasize the fact that the foreman is essential to the efficient functioning of the department of vocational education.

Field for state or federal action—I have said that there are exceptions to the stand I have taken. I can imagine a situation in which it is almost impossible for a director of vocational education to induce his board to spend money on a program for training foremen. In a case of this kind, it may be desirable to follow the plan used in one city in Michigan. In this case, the University of Michigan started an intensive campaign in order to interest the people of the community in the work. This was carried on, along with similar classes in other communities, for two years. At the end of that period, a meeting was called for the purpose of discuss-

ing the continuance of the work. The University took the stand that the problem was a local one, and that they had merely been subsidizing the work in order to give it its original impetus. Owing to the insistence of the employers, the school authorities agreed to hire a man to take up the work where the University left off. This man has been on the job for over three years and has done an excellent piece of work. As a result of his experience, he has expressed the opinion that his contacts with these foremen have been most helpful in carrying on the program of vocational education. The director of vocational education has expressed himself similarly, and has gone as far as to say that there is no phase of the work in his department that has been more helpful in bringing to its aid the help and guidance which only men of long experience under factory conditions can give. Probably some of the work being done by the federal board is of this missionary type, carried along for a period long enough to demonstrate its value, then left to the local community or industry to continue it.

Another exception might be made in the case of those men who are preparing themselves to become leaders of foremen's conferences. This type of work has a place only in a large community or in a central location which draws upon a large area for its students. This phase of the work can best be carried on by the Federal Board in Regional Conferences, or by such agencies as Dunwoodie Institute. These agencies can draw upon a large territory and by working together can train all the leaders for whom there is likely to be a demand.

Summary—In conclusion, I should like to summarize what I have said by presenting the points I wish to emphasize.

1. Educational leaders are coming to see more and more that the local school must provide for the education of all.
2. This means that the mature person who has awakened to the value of education will have an opportunity to realize his awakened ambition.
3. City school authorities have been meeting this responsibility by providing education from the kindergarten up to, and including, college work.
4. The work has been offered by means of day courses, part-time courses, evening courses, and correspondence courses.
5. The foreman as a member of the community has a right to demand that his desire for training be met.
6. Therefore the training of foreman is a direct responsibility of the city school authorities, and as such, should be included as an integral part of the program for vocational education.
7. The success of any plan for apprenticeship training, cooperative training, vocational guidance, or part-time education depends almost entirely upon the willingness of the people with whom the workers come in contact, to cooperate.
8. This is particularly true in regard to the foreman, the man to whom the workers report directly, and upon whose aid and advice the director of vocational education depends.

9. And finally, since the local school authorities are responsible for all educational work in the community; since a full measure of success in any program for vocational education is possible only through the active co-operation of the foreman, and since the foreman needs and desires training, therefore as a matter of policy, as well as a matter of actual duty, the training of foremen should be made a definite part of any program for vocational education in every city where there are a sufficient number of foremen to make it worthwhile.

RELATING FOREMAN TRAINING PROGRAMS TO THE PROGRAM OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN A CITY SYSTEM

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In order to supplement my own personal experiences in connection with foremanship conference work and programs in vocational education, I prepared a brief outline of questions upon these two subjects which were mailed out from the United States Bureau of Education to about twenty different states. By this means an attempt was made to secure a representative sample of statistical information and opinion upon the question of the relationship of foreman training programs to programs for vocational classes.

The large majority of these requests for information were sent to state departments of education, a very few to the extension departments of universities, and still fewer to local school systems. The information compiled is based upon 22 reports which are believed to be representative of the present situation relative to the question stated.

The information called for was listed under the following six major questions:

1. Have vocational classes been organized largely as the result of foreman training classes?
2. Have any teachers of public school vocational classes been enroled in a foremanship training class?
3. Have foreman training classes been a means of discovering and securing desirable teachers for vocational classes?
4. Have foreman training programs been a means of obtaining the interest and support of manufacturers and other individuals and organizations in the development of vocational education programs?
5. Have foreman training classes been productive of valuable suggestions for the organization and instructional work of vocational classes?
6. Have vocational classes been a means of interesting industrial plants in a foreman training program?

A seventh question was added asking for suggestions as to how a foremanship training program can best be related to a public school program for vocational education.

The answers to the first question, namely, Have any vocational classes been organized largely as the result of foreman training classes, were largely in the affirmative. Thirteen said that vocational classes had re-

sulted from foremanship training classes, four answered in the negative, while five were doubtful, some of these saying that they did not have the information to answer the question. Ten had organized day classes, 12 had organized evening classes, largely as the result of the foreman training courses.

These public school classes represented a variety of courses such as textile courses, telephone courses, furniture design courses, furniture manufacture courses, accounting courses, and numerous related courses as in mathematics and drafting. Nine reports stated that plant courses had been organized as the result of foremanship work. Eight reported in the negative while about five were uncertain.

Seven reports showed that teachers of public school vocational classes had been enroled in foremanship courses, ten showed that none had been enroled, the others either failed to report or said they had not the information. As to whether or not it is desirable to have any vocational teachers enrol in the foremanship conference courses, seventeen expressed the opinion that it is desirable, three said "no" and two expressed no decided opinion.

Have foremanship classes been a means of discovering and securing desirable teachers for vocational classes, was answered in the affirmative by eleven, in the negative by five, the other six could not say definitely. The reports to this question show that 50 percent of them say that vocational teachers have been discovered through foremanship work. Instance after instance was cited in these reports of specific examples of obtaining teachers through foreman classes.

Have foreman training programs been a means of obtaining the interests and support of manufacturers and other individuals and organizations in the development of vocational education programs, was answered in the affirmative by seventeen, in the negative by one, while four offered no definite statement in answer to this question. Many specific examples were given in these reports to show that the support of industrial companies for a vocational program for the public school had been augmented as a result of foremanship courses.

The report from one state with a well-developed foreman training program supplemented an affirmative answer to this question by saying that they had many letters from companies showing this to be the case, and that if I desired they would send the letters to me. It seems to me that such proof of the value, that foreman training work can be to gaining support for the whole vocational program, is beyond refutation.

The question, Have foreman training courses been productive of valuable suggestions for the organization and instructional work of vocational classes, was responded to in the affirmative by ten, eight replied "no," and four were without the information for answering the question. In connection with this question—as was the case with other questions, some of the reports stated that while the answer had to be "no," the values were there but that the necessary methods for realizing on them had not been used.

Have vocational classes been a means of interesting industrial plants in a foreman training program? was answered in the negative by nine, in the affirmative by six while seven expressed themselves as doubtful.

The call for suggestions for properly relating a foreman training program to a vocational education program in a city system, was productive of many recommendations of which the following are representative:

Select the right man as conference leader. Get in touch with plants having good working policies. Give the foremen "their money's worth" at every conference. Forget certain school administration red tape that would tend to hinder the development of a program. There should be close cooperation between the vocational training in the public schools and any kind of foreman or plant training. This can be accomplished only when the directors, teacher trainers, and foreman trainers are working together for a common purpose. The city director of vocational education or some member of his staff should be a member of the first foreman group. Foreman training courses "properly put over" will perhaps do more in the way of arousing interest and securing the support of employers for vocational education programs than any other agency. Invitations to school men to "sit in" at the foremanship conferences will afford them an opportunity to get a clear view of the educational needs of industry. Through trained foremen promote the desirability of training for better work or promotion. Use foremen's conferences to promote foremen's clubs and get a committee from these as an advisory committee for a vocational program. Advantage should be taken of foremanship conferences by the coordinator in cooperative education to extend his field. Foremanship training classes conducted by a state supervisor of industrial education of a state having no compulsory part-time law or where interest in vocational education is not great, is one of the best means for promoting a vocational education program for the community. Vocational courses must be definite and show that they are fulfilling the needs of the industries.

If foremanship work is to be evaluated in terms of the contributions it can make to a vocational education program, it will be necessary to follow up and check the results of these courses much more accurately than has been done in many instances in the past. The answers received in this study indicate very clearly that in many cases this follow-up work has not been done, at least not in such a manner as to yield valuable information. Often the answers indicated a lack of information or even any very decided opinion as to whether or not foremanship courses have been a means of securing teachers, or obtaining suggestions for content and materials for vocational classes, or for enlisting the support of industrial concerns for a vocational education program. In the attempted solution of any problem the scientist must devise means for determining the results of his experiment. If one of the results of foremanship courses is supposed to be the contribution that these courses can make to a vocational education program, it would seem to be incumbent upon all those responsible for the development of these courses to take such measures as may be necessary to determine whether or not these particular values have been realized, and if they have not, to form an intelligent opinion from a careful study of methods used as to whether or not foremanship courses can be made to yield these values to the vocational education program.

This careful checking for results will necessitate the cooperation on the one hand of those conducting foremanship courses and on the other hand those responsible for the development of vocational education classes. For identifying situations in both programs that may be related to each other as cause and result, it is necessary to adopt some simple method, with sufficient technic of procedure as will make an analysis of results easy and the recording of them simple. For example the ones responsible for organizing and conducting foremanship courses should provide ways for making permanent memoranda of valuable information obtained from foremanship work relative to such points as:

1. The need for trade extension courses, part-time cooperative courses and any other types of trade apprenticeship courses.
2. Evidences of good will on the part of the companies which may be cultivated into active support of a vocational program.
3. Possible sources for materials and equipment for vocational classes.
4. Potential or possible teachers.
5. Possible contacts with industrial concerns, such as invitations to visit plants, especially when such an invitation can be made to include the local director of vocational education. Such contacts may prove of much value in developing a vocational program and obtaining support for financing it.
6. Manifestation of willingness on the part of foremen or management to assist in the organization of vocational classes. Such records should be made available for the use of the vocational director and his staff. The vocational staff should then check on the results of these as manifested in the vocational program for the school. If such records were accurately kept by all, the educational statistician would soon be able to calculate the coefficient of correlation between a good foreman training program and a good vocational education program and even to compute the partial correlations for the different items. He probably, from such data, would be able to suggest how the two programs might be better related.

I believe the conclusion is warranted that courses for the improvement of foremanship dealing with the real and vital problems of the foreman on the job, as he meets them in handling his men and getting out the company's product—not courses dealing merely with economics or technical process of manufacture, are a valuable and never-to-be-neglected means of developing interest in and obtaining information for the development and organization of a vocational education program.

A RENAISSANCE OF APPRENTICESHIP

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It is no longer necessary to call attention to the fact that apprenticeship training on the job is practically a thing everywhere evident. Unskilled workmanship is a result of the modern spirit of bulk production. We have been content to secure our best workers through immigration from countries where adequate training was still available. Not only has this source been curtailed but due to after-war conditions the apprentice training programs of Europe have ceased to function as efficiently as formerly.

We have established in some cases all-day trade schools with the objective of substituting the school for training on the job. Honest research upon the part of those who have experimented with this form of training frequently reveals the fact that the diplomas issued have as little significance as the diploma and the blessing of the average academic high school insofar as actual trade placement is concerned.

Many factors are involved in the training of apprentices. We must cooperate with organized labor, employers' organizations, open shop organizations, chambers of commerce, and with the many individual employment managers of large industrial corporations.

The Cleveland plan for apprentice training is essentially one of reciprocity. Our policy is one of meeting actual training needs through a progress based upon conditions as they are in each respective trade.

If we would effectively train apprentices for efficient service as skilled craftsmen in our community, it is imperative

A. That any program set up for the training of workers in any one industry must have the thorough backing of those who will employ the product of that training.

B. That the demand for training should be propagated from the trade end rather than from the office of the city vocational director. In other words, the school should not "peddle" vocational education, but should establish a training program in response to the urgent demand of those in a position to guarantee continuity of employment for those receiving the training. We should work from the outside in, rather than from the inside out.

C. That definite apprenticeship committees should be established in each trade for which training is solicited for the following purposes:

1. To guarantee a committee purely representative of the trade for which training is requested in order that the school may have the complete backing of the employers and, in the case of closed shop trades, of the labor unions with whom all workers in that particular craft are affiliated. In our building trades committees in Cleveland we include representatives of the Building Trades Employers' Association, of the local contractors association and of the local union. In case of an open shop trade, like auto mechanics, we include employing members of the automobile dealers and manufacturers association and service managers.
2. To interview candidates for apprenticeship for the purpose of insuring a satisfactory educational foundation. All apprentices in Cleveland must be able to read and write the English language before being accepted as apprentices. Some have been obliged to attend night classes.
3. To insure upon the part of all apprentices adequate physical condition through a medical examination.
4. To determine a correct social attitude upon the apprentices' part through an interview before the entire apprenticeship committee.
5. To determine a uniform wage scale for the community with automatic increases throughout the period of apprenticeship.
6. To make contacts with various supply agencies in order that they contribute their quota to the undertaking. In the Cleveland schools we receive all of our brick, mortar, lumber, hardware, paints, wallpaper, etc., from the various

supply houses without cost to the board of education. The dealers in these commodities benefit through increased sales due to skilled and competent workers trained to use their product.

7. To discipline boys in cases of insubordination or truancy at the school or upon the job.
8. To establish a uniform indentureship agreement which is signed by the employer, the boy, and his parents.
9. To appoint auxiliary committees to work with the director of vocational education, the coordinator, the teacher trainer and the particular trades teachers in establishing an approved course of study. This should include a complete trade analysis upon which the teacher trainer together with the shop teachers in question may work out definite job instruction sheets. These subcommittees should be selected with the definite purpose of securing men thoroughly informed upon all phases of the trades for which apprentice training is conducted.

D. That all classes should be held in the daytime during working hours, the pupil to receive pay for the time of attendance. No boy can be forced to night school. The result of evening apprentice instruction is inequality of training. If the boy attends during the day on pay time he must be present and every boy receives the same preparation for efficient craftsmanship. If he does not have the capacity to do the work and pass the examinations at the end of each examination period he is automatically dropped from the trade by the committee. Part-time day training eventually insures competent and skilled workers to the community.

E. That due consideration be given to the varying needs in each particular group of trades an apprentice must attend school four hours per week during time throughout the entire four years of apprenticeship. To illustrate this point—during the first period of attending the part-time school an apprentice bricklayer may be taught to “back up a wall.” Upon returning to the job the foreman learns that the apprentice has been taught to perform this particular operation. He therefore starts him upon some part of the wall where high grade workmanship is not essential and an entire week of practice upon this particular phase of the craft results. The next week the apprentice is taught how to lay common or American bond upon the face of the wall and to lay a corner in this work again gives him an opportunity for practicing upon the job. Economically the boy is earning and is a community asset throughout his period of training as he is producing. At the same time he is constantly acquiring skills without loss of time for instruction upon the job. A well-organized school for apprentice training can teach each operation in the minimum time.

In the metal trades the situation is different. In spite of the coming of the “Iron Man” even the operator of the automatic machines requires a certain period of practice instruction before he may be allowed to work by himself. There is a large financial investment in each machine which must be made to pay the interest upon the money invested plus a profit. This means that it should be in full production constantly and should not be tied up for instruction purposes any more than necessary. It therefore becomes evident that it is very advisable in the manufacturing and mechan-

ical industries to give a preliminary training in the fundamental operations common to all machines. No matter how complicated a piece of mechanism may be it is but a combination of the mechanisms covered by the lathe, the drill press, grinder, planer, shaper, and the milling machine. We therefore in our machine and auto mechanics apprentice training groups offer one year of full time all-day trade instruction, not for the purpose of substituting this training for apprenticeship, since we recognize that effective training must be given upon the job itself, but rather to wear off the "rough edges" and turn a boy over to the industry thoroughly grounded in the fundamental operations. During this first year we eliminate the noncompetent and the boy who desires to enter the trade through play incentive only. The boy enters industry with sufficient experience upon basic fundamental tools and process so that he may be trained to operate the more complicated machines in the minimum time upon the job. Recognizing the fact that many industries are highly specialized, the second year is organized upon a cooperative part-time basis, two weeks on the job and two weeks in school. This is done with the objective of bringing the boy back to school upon the alternate two weeks in order that he may receive instruction upon the operations of the trade wherein the particular corporation to whom he is indentured fails to give him all-round instruction. From the third year on the metal and manufacturing trades apprentices attend school four hours per week in the same manner that the building trades apprentices attend throughout their four years of apprenticeship. In many cases we have found that one day every two weeks is more effective than one-half day each week due to the time saved in traveling from the job to school and to the fact that a complete day at school enables the teacher and the boy to concentrate to better advantage upon the work at hand.

F. That every effort be made in the school to duplicate actual working conditions throughout the instruction. Mathematics, blueprint reading, etc., are not taught as separate subjects but are definitely tied up to the trade operations upon which the pupil is receiving instruction. If the apprenticeship committee backing the school has made the trade analysis, it is evident that any failure to teach the right subjectmatter cannot be laid at the door of the public school executives and that changes in curricula content should be made from time to time at the suggestion of the committee.

G. That only those teachers should be employed who come from the craft itself and who have a high reputation for skilled workmanship among their fellow-workers. Most of our teachers have been selected from large groups recommended by our apprenticeship committees. Following employment they are immediately placed upon an intensive night teacher training program. We believe that each large community should have a teacher trainer upon the job and that his greatest work may be done through individual contact with the teachers while at work. We also

believe that each large community should employ a foreman training coordinator for the purpose of training foremen on the job and at the same time making those contacts with the industry that will insure the proper spirit towards apprentices upon the part of plant executives and foremen.

H. That this should be definitely understood at the outset that the committee controls apprenticeship only and that the division of vocational education controls the school. Open versus closed shop controversies should not concern a public school employee. He should not be an official member of his apprenticeship committees. If the community recognizes closed shop conditions it is not his problem. He should not be officially affiliated with either labor unions or open shop associations. He should cooperate with all. He must of necessity have apprenticeship committees qualified to speak authoritatively for the trades for which apprentice training is requested. In some situations his apprenticeship committee may be quite enthusiastic upon either the committee that absolutely controls the apprenticeship situation in the local community and without its cooperation no training would be possible. The vocational director is therefore not affiliated with any of the apprentice committees except in an advisory capacity, and in turn committees do not control the school as all classes are open to any boy in the community who is employed in a trade for which training is offered. The committee is responsible for sending to the school all of the apprentices affiliated with the interests which it represents, for their attendance, and for their discipline. Members of the division of vocational education have in a few cases temporarily become members of some committees in order to assist in establishing a functioning group. This is true of our painters' committee. Many have also attended apprenticeship committee meetings and have frequently been called upon for advice. We in turn have gone to the committee for advice regarding our courses of study, school maintenance, etc. The highest spirit of cooperation has always existed. A joint advisory committee made up of representatives of all of the individual apprenticeship committees and including representatives of the vocational division of the public schools has been established to function in such matters as apprenticeship graduations, their financing, invitations to speakers, the issuing of publications, and such other matters requiring joint action upon the part of all apprenticeship committees and the vocational division of the public schools.

In conclusion, no vocational program can be effective without the actual participation of the buyer of the product. We all stand back of the thing we sponsor. Our criticism of that which is our own is constructive. No program can be successfully conducted based upon any arbitrary policy. The Cleveland plan of apprentice training could not be transplanted bodily to other communities. Neither can an identical set-up be used for every trade in our own community. No fixed policy is possible. "Common sense" is the one fundamental element essential to any successful apprentice training program.

DEVELOPMENTS IN INDUSTRIAL ARTS EDUCATION

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Philadelphia the cradle of manual training movement—It has been just fifty years ago since there were exhibited, in the city of Philadelphia, examples of work in wood and iron made by the pupils at the Imperial Technical School at St. Petersburg. This exhibit, held in connection with the Centennial Exposition of 1876, proved of much interest. It was the beginning of the manual training movement in the United States.

The first public manual training high schools were established in Baltimore in 1884, in Philadelphia in 1885, and in Omaha in 1886. Just ten years later than the Centennial Exposition in 1886, Gustave Larson, introduced Swedish sloyd instruction into the public schools of Boston.

Why introduced—The demand for instruction in manual training came as a result, in part, of a modified philosophy of education, and partly because the general public desired a secondary education that was not wholly bookish. Manufacturers and others engaged in work involving skilled labor recognized the need for training that would in time develop skilled artisans. Others justified manual training on theoretical grounds. In fact so many claims were made that one would think that manual training was surely the panacea for all educational ills.

The transition—Time and experience have shown us a few outstanding things rather clearly. The old traditional manual training instruction placed too much emphasis upon the manual or physical aspects of the instruction and not enough upon the thought content or mental side; it placed too much emphasis upon training (which in the narrow sense of the word is habit formation) as distinguished from education which may be regarded as habit formation involving reasoning; there was too much of following instructions rather than providing for initiative on the part of the students.

So out of the early exercise work given in a very formal way has grown a new conception of the place and purpose of such instruction. And along with these changes has also come a new name—industrial arts education.

What is industrial arts education?—The term "industrial arts" as applied to education stands first of all for instruction that is today recognized to be an essential part of general education. It is one of several forms of practical arts education—the form that concerns itself with education definitely related to those manifold practical activities of mankind that are distinctly industrial in character. Industrial arts education precedes vocational education. It forms a necessary general foundation and background upon which specialized vocational education may be built. In a sense it is one of the connecting links between broad, general education on the one hand and narrower specialized vocational education on the other.

Industrial arts instruction is given in the elementary as well as in the junior high school field. When given in grades one to six inclusive, it

is frequently referred to as elementary industrial arts. In these grades the instruction is usually handled by the regular classroom teachers.

In the more advanced grades, the instruction is usually given by teachers having considerable special training.

New developments—Industrial arts education, like other movements in education such as kindergarten instruction, home economics education, and agricultural education, is a matter of gradual development. Progress frequently consists in improvement and refinements rather than anything distinctly new. Among recent developments in the field of industrial arts education may be mentioned the following:

1. Wider recognition of the need for industrial arts education
2. Emphasis upon a diversified program
3. Exploration and try-out
4. The general shop
5. The modified general shop
6. Better unit shops
7. Home mechanics
8. Better trained teachers

Each of these factors will be briefly discussed.

Wider recognition—Industrial arts education has won recognition as an essential part of a good democratic program of general education through factors such as the following.

1. It appeals to, and satisfies certain strong inborn tendencies that are useful in education—such as the native impulses to want to construct and to decorate things—the constructive and artistic impulses.
2. It utilizes motor impulses and activities as a vehicle for carrying much useful information.
3. It helps to make possible learning through doing and it helps to balance the educational diet.
4. In grades seven, eight, and nine it is particularly useful as a means of exploration and guidance.
5. It gives information about and experience with tools, materials, processes, and design that have wide application to every day living.

In speaking of the present *scope* of industrial arts education, I should like to limit myself to Pennsylvania, since recent statistics for the country as a whole were not readily available to me.

During the year ending June 30, 1926, there were enrolled in industrial arts courses in grades above the sixth, 135,000 boys in the public schools of the state. This required a small army of over 700 teachers—each specially trained. Over 100 school districts in the state made provision for industrial arts education for grades seven, eight, and nine. All of this is exclusive of 166,000 girls who receive similar instruction in the field of general home economics and about 4,000 farm boys and girls who are carrying on junior projects in connection with agricultural schools. And furthermore these figures, it should be noted, *do not* include enrolments in vocational courses of any kind—all are in the field of general education.

Diversified program—The modern program of industrial arts education

is broad. It deals with much more than woodwork and mechanical drawing for it aims, among other things, to give to pupils a broad, appreciative understanding of what the world is doing in its major industrial activities. It aims to teach about such industries as the following: lumbering, mining, iron and steel, printing, textiles, glass, paper, and leather. Furthermore, it aims to touch the work of typical skilled trades such as those of the machinist, electrician, printer, sheetmetal worker, carpenter, cabinet maker, pattern maker, plumber, cement worker, painter, and decorator.

The aim of industrial arts education is, of course, not to develop highly specialized vocational workers—it is not to make mechanics. This cannot be done because the boys are too young, the time allowed is too short, and the equipment is usually not adequate for vocational education. But through work with a variety of tools and materials, supplemented by trips to industrial establishments and other observations and study, the boys can get information and experiences that will be very helpful at the time and in later life.

Exploration and try-out—By no means least among the advantages of industrial arts education are the opportunities that are afforded for exploration and try-out of pupils interests and capacities in other than bookish lines. These try-out experiences are given, not in a hit and miss manner, but under the guidance of trained teachers who constantly study all students in order to help them to find out what vocations are likely to be the greatest source of usefulness and happiness.

It is of course obvious that one cannot give try-out experiences in metal work without some metal working tools nor in printing without some printing equipment. If try-out experiences are to be provided there must, some how or other, be provided a diversified equipment.

The general shop—When a school shop is equipped for two or more distinct types of shop instruction, such as woodwork, and metal work, then the shop is called a general shop in order to distinguish it from the single activity or unit shop. A general shop, then, is essentially a composite shop. The term properly refers to a type of shop lay-out and organization—not as is sometimes thought to a distinct type of education. Industrial arts education is being given equally well in unit and in general shops. The instruction may be approximately the same in both cases.

General shop best for small schools—The general shop is particularly well suited to the smaller schools—to those that have only one teacher of industrial arts education, or that may have one only on a part-time basis. When there is a shortage of room; when costs of equipment and of operation must be kept down; and when the enrolment is small, then the general shop, or a modification of it, will best serve the need.

The modified general shop—When the size of the unit of administration is sufficiently large to employ two or three full-time industrial arts teachers, and assuming that it is desired to teach four or six forms of shop work, such as wood work, sheet metal work, electrical work, general metal work

and printing on a general education basis, then a modified general shop is likely to prove very satisfactory.

A modified general shop organization may be arranged by having each teacher handle two or sometimes three distinct activities. For example, one teacher may give instruction in general wood work and electrical work, and the other one may handle sheet metal work and general metal work. Other combinations will suggest themselves—they will have to be worked out in most instances with specific teachers in mind for it is not always possible to secure teachers that have, to begin with, the necessary training to teach all combinations of shop activity that fall in line with a good paper lay-out.

The modified general shop is not necessarily limited in its application to the smaller school districts. Sometimes the location of the school with reference to the school population in certain grades is such that a city having approximately one hundred thousand inhabitants or more finds it expedient to establish general shops or modified general shops in certain schools, and unit shops in others.

Better unit shops—By a “unit shop” is meant a school shop that is equipped for teaching a single type of education such as printing, wood-working or electrical work.

In the unit shop plan of organization the teacher has the opportunity to become a specialist. This, other things being equal, is a distinct advantage to the pupils to be taught and is usually also desirable from a teacher's point of view. The unit shop plan of organization is very popular in schools having an enrolment sufficiently large to justify the establishment of a series of such shops through which the pupils may be rotated. Unit shops have been established many years in the larger cities and their arrangement and equipments reflect considerable progress. Sometimes the equipment is planned so that the shops may be used for industrial arts students a part of the time and for vocational day or evening students the rest of the time. In any case, they frequently reflect careful planning so that the cost will be reasonable and so that the shops will be well suited to their purposes.

Home mechanics—A good *approach* to industrial arts shop work in the seventh grade may be made through home mechanics. It is much like approaching the study of civics through home and community civics. The seventh grade boy can well be ushered into the broad realm of industrial arts education through instruction that first of all centers around his home and his everyday wants. From this point it can be broadened to become state, nation and world-wide in interests and appreciations. Through home mechanics the boy is brought in touch with projects involving a variety of tools and materials, and including both repair and construction work. It is an excellent thing to give a boy the opportunity to learn the “how” the “why” and “wherefore” of things that need to be made and repaired about the home, or in case of farm boys, around the farmstead, but his

interests and appreciations must be broader than home activities, and his skills should be more representative of what people are doing in their occupational efforts. It is well to keep in mind, therefore, that home mechanics is but one of the introductory steps to industrial arts education.

Better trained teachers—The last factor that I shall mention in the development in industrial arts education, but by no means the least important is better trained teachers. In these days of ever increasing specialization it is not an easy matter to find persons who have had both adequate professional training and satisfactory experience in two or more types of practical arts work. And when found such teachers often command salaries beyond the range of the smaller school districts that need them most. It is easiest to secure a teacher for a unit shop, somewhat harder to get one for a modified general shop, and still more difficult to get the right kind of a teacher for a general shop where two or more types of shop work are taught. At the present time the greatest single handicap to the development, particularly of the general shop movement, is the shortage of properly qualified teachers. It would be a mistake to plan for one type of shop organization or another without at the same time looking into the availability of competent teachers. The success or failure of an enterprise frequently hinges upon how it is handled at the start.

There is no use in buying fairly extensive equipment for giving instruction in printing or sheet metal work, for example, unless the teacher can handle such activities. In other words, the available teacher must be considered in planning curriculums and in equipping shops. The standard of teaching is going up in industrial arts education as in other branches of education. A well qualified industrial arts teacher should be able to meet the professional requirements of other teachers in general education. In addition he should have had, or should secure while in service, practical trade training that will give him a rich background of experience and knowledge that will be very useful. Technical training cannot entirely replace, even for industrial arts teachers the experience that comes from working at a skilled trade.

WHAT CAN A GIRLS' TRADE SCHOOL DO FOR GIRLS AND WOMEN IN INDUSTRY

RUTH SILL, PRINCIPAL OF TRADE SCHOOL FOR GIRLS, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

We hear a great deal about the present age as an age of specialization demanding trained workers; we hear about the people who have entered the professional, industrial, and business fields without adequate knowledge of the duties, the mental and physical requirements, the minimum training necessary, the employment conditions and wages, and consequently have been failures in their jobs and unhappy citizens; and finally we hear "what are the schools doing to help young citizens 'to find their places' in life."

The business of public education is a huge business and is still expanding. It has developed tremendously from the early days when it offered oppor-

tunities to the favored few to today when compulsory education is a duty. The apparent development of this gigantic business will be to offer opportunities, at all times, to citizens of all ages, that each may develop his abilities to the utmost. This development will offer opportunities in social, cultural, and vocational fields.

"Finding your place" in life means training for successful living. This is not alone the school's responsibility but the school must assume the leadership.

Every worker in the school system has a part in this great undertaking—every worker from the kindergarten on must realize his job is not just to teach arithmetic or some other subject but to help young persons become straight-thinking, responsible young workers who will be capable of holding their places in life.

Grade teachers too often interest and inspire young people with the opportunities in the business and professional fields. Sometimes I think this is due to lack of knowledge of the opportunities in industry and sometimes I think it is due to a bit of academic snobbery. Certainly about 75 percent of the young people under 18 in schools today will probably enter industry so it behooves the advisers of these young people to know some of the necessary natural aptitudes, the preliminary training, demands for workers, wages, etc., of the important industries in any given community. What can a trade school do to train girls and women in industry?

May I tell you a little of what the Philadelphia trade school has accomplished and what it hopes to do in the near future? This trade school prepares girls for the dressmaking, millinery, novelties, machine operating, and allied trades. The training offers to girls the technics and some skill in one of the trades and a well balanced program in general and related subjects that the girls may have the tolerance and understanding of social and economic conditions necessary for successful workers and an interest in general culture.

The dressmaking, millinery, and novelties courses are two-year courses, and the machine operating course is a one year course. They are planned to allow 50 percent of the day to a trade subject and 50 percent of the day to general and related subjects.

All trade rooms are run on a shop basis. The articles made during the first half of each course are made standard sizes and all articles made during the second half are special custom orders made to specified measurements, designs, etc. Of course each workroom is expected to be, and really is, self-supporting as far as supplies are concerned. The work is planned to train the girls to use skilfully the tools and the materials of the trade; to be keen in taking directions; to develop accuracy and judgment.

Any girl eligible for working papers is eligible to the trade school. Pupils are admitted at the beginning of the terms in September and February and on Mondays throughout the school year.

The trade school is organized on the Dalton plan so that girls are advanced as rapidly as individual ability permits. The Dalton plan allows for individual work, individual progress, and individual budgeting of time. Because of the individual progress it is possible to send girls into trade for short periods, if that seem advisable, during the school course.

The trade school offers much besides training for a definite job. The girls are placed on their honor and are given every opportunity to develop responsibility and initiative. There is a well organized student association which plans for the social life of the school and the general conduct of the girls throughout the school. There is a school library and a school bank managed by the girls.

When a girl has completed satisfactorily a prescribed course she is given a letter stating that she has satisfactorily completed the school course, and that after three months satisfactorily reported work in trade, she will be given a diploma.

The trade school has an employment bureau. The counselor of the bureau places the girls in jobs in the particular trades in which they have specialized and where they will have opportunities to advance. All establishments to which girls are sent have been investigated. These young workers are followed up for a time until they are acclimatized to the working world. Getting jobs for trained girls is not difficult for there has been a greater demand for workers in most of the trades than the trade school has been able to supply. The graduates secure good jobs and hold them. Their wages range from \$10 to \$14 per week in the beginning and increase steadily to from \$25 to \$35 per week.

In a survey made, in June 1925, of girls graduated from dressmaking course from June, 1920 to June, 1925, it was found the girls graduated in 1920 took $1\frac{1}{2}$ years to increase the average beginning wage $33\frac{1}{3}$ percent. The girls graduated from January to June, 1925, advanced the average beginning wage $33\frac{1}{3}$ percent in 5 months. The beginning wage had also increased much. This is due to better organized work given in school and the increased confidence of employers in school-trained workers.

An average beginning wage in all trades for 1925 was \$12. The highest wage earned so far by any girl is \$75 per week.

It is difficult to rate trade school graduates as any other group of trained workers until they have been working at least five years. The trade school definite records start with the class of June, 1920. However, these records have proved that trained workers may be sure of regular employment, and that they advance rapidly. The cultural value of doing a job intelligently, of course, cannot be estimated.

In a survey made in February, 1926—to get statistics for the doubting Thomases concerning the value of trade training—a group of girls graduated from trade school in 1925 were compared with an equal number of girls who left public schools and went directly to work.

The untrained girls were chosen by the junior employment service from girls leaving public schools at the same time as the trade school girls and

compared in nationality, grade, and rating in grade with the trade school group. When the survey was made the trade school girls had worked from 6 months to 1 year, and the untrained girls had worked from 1½ to 3 years. Although this survey covered only a limited number it represented an average group.

The trained girls had been employed all but vacation time for the most part. Many had held one job, or if two, the second showed advancement. The beginning wage was better and wages advanced. The untrained workers held from 1 to 6 jobs—the last job in many cases was not much better than the first.

The Philadelphia trade school started as a private enterprise in 1916. In 1918 it became a part of the public school system. It has been housed in two ancient buildings, but next fall it acquires a new home. The building has been definitely built for a trade school. It will be called the Philadelphia trade and continuation school for girls, and in this building with its splendid equipment, we hope to be able to offer to girls and women of Philadelphia a variety of opportunities. We want to be of service to the girl who has only a short time to prepare for work, to the girl who may spend as long as necessary, and to the girl who can do only part-time school work.

According to all available data we know that most of the girls who leave school early do not do so because of economic necessity—they belong, for the most part, to the group who do not wish to avail themselves of such educational opportunities as are offered in high school courses. We also know that the young untrained workers who drift from job to job are very likely to become as adults, members of that unskilled army of workers who always live on a low economic level. The cost of lack of vocational fitness and ignorance are hard to measure.

We must show youngsters the variety of opportunities in all fields and help them to know the keen satisfaction of doing all kinds of jobs the very best they can be done.

It is the school's job to set standards and to help each young person to know her own aptitudes and interests, and to help her get the training necessary to make the most of her talents.

Theodore Roosevelt said "there are two kinds of success. One is the very rare kind that comes to the man who has the power to do what no one else has the power to do. That is genius. Only a very limited amount of success of life comes to the persons possessing genius. The average man who is successful—the average statesman—the average public servant—the average wage-earner—the average soldier, who wins what we call great success is not a genius. He is a man who has merely the ordinary qualities that he shares with his fellows, but who has developed those qualities to more than ordinary degree"—and later Roosevelt emphasizes the importance of the "rather common place, the humdrum virtues that in their sum are designated as character."

APPRENTICE TRAINING IN THE METAL TRADES

R. F. CAREY, SUPERVISOR OF EDUCATION, WESTINGHOUSE ELECTRIC AND MANUFACTURING CO., PHILADELPHIA, PA.

In discussing this subject, let us first consider the situation now facing American industry, especially the metal working industries. They are very much in the position of an apparently healthy, robust, vigorous man who has some insidious disease eating at his vitals. He appreciates to some extent, at least, the existing situation, goes about his daily task as if nothing were wrong, keeps a stiff upper lip and says little or nothing about his condition. He, nevertheless, is living on his reserve strength and his doctor, who knows it, is endeavoring to impress him with the seriousness of the situation. The doctor feels that the case is far from hopeless, that his patient can throw off the malady if he will, it being largely a state of mind, but that to recover, the patient must change his mode of living and recognize the limitations of his own strength.

The metal working trades, and this is true of all other skilled trades, except the electrical, are inducting relatively few young men into their ranks. The armies of industry are becoming armies of old men and armies of old men will, sooner or later, become armies of dead men. A review of the 1920 census by the National Industrial Conference Board, indicates that there should be 750,000 apprentices in America. The same census states that there are but 144,177, a deficit of 605,823, or four fifths less than the required number. This shortage can no longer be made up by the importation of skilled artisans from abroad. Those days are gone forever when America can beckon to the shores of Europe and, shortly after, welcome a boat load of skilled laborers, eager and anxious to carry on in the Land of Promise. During the first year of the operation of our restricted immigration law, 300,000 immigrants, in round numbers, entered the country, 200,000 departed, leaving a net increase in population of 100,000, of whom only 6518 were men and boys. These were the results under the first restriction law when the several quotas totaled 357,803. Our present law still further restricts the number of immigrants admissible to 164,667 or less than half the previous figure. Since Philadelphia is 22 percent foreign born, you can readily appreciate how great has been the influx and how little can further be expected from this source. If America's industrial supremacy is to be maintained, it is evident that some form of comprehensive trades training is absolutely essential and what is not ordinarily appreciated, as indicated by the foregoing figures, is that such a program calls for the training of American boys for American industry.

The general impression that it is from the ranks of the foreign born that we draw our apprentices is not supported by the facts. As just indicated, there are not enough boys coming over to meet the needs of industry. In my experience we have few applicants who are foreign born and relatively few who are of foreign parentage. We must look to our American boys as the future bulwark of industry. This is as it should be.

This growing shortage of skilled labor is, in a way, recognized by industry, but reaction to it has been slow, due, no doubt, to the fact that the situation is not as yet critical, altho it is becoming so, but in certain quarters it is also recognized that if the situation is allowed to become critical, then much time necessarily must be lost before any corrective efforts can be organized and felt. Preparedness is one of the watch dogs of success.

There was a time, not so long ago, when there was little or no scarcity of material for trades training, when being a craftsman was an honorable calling, in fact the only one open to the vast majority of the people. In an apprenticeship lay both vocation and education. Then came the renaissance of the white collar with its attendant adulation, aided and abetted, if not totally induced by the transition of modern industry from the home to the factory system. During this period wages were low, working conditions unsatisfactory and opportunity unattractive. Naturally the ambitious and the intelligent sought other channels. Also, well known captains of industry told aspiring youth how by dint of hard work, long hours of application and everlasting study, they managed to lift themselves out of the humble ranks of the overalled, but seldom mentioned the fact that it was through an apprenticeship or its equivalent that they got their start. All of this has had a tendency toward steering American youth away from mechanical pursuits. Again the worm has turned and the human element in industry has come into its own. Wages have increased, working conditions improved and opportunities opened up, so that any one may utilize his talents to the limit.

To increase interest in trades training, the Philadelphia Metal Manufacturers Association's Committee on vocational education addressed to the eighth grade boys of Philadelphia, a pamphlet descriptive of these opportunities. The response to this effort has been gratifying. It indicates clearly that the thought of a vocational life can be cultivated in the minds of the youth of America. It shows that propaganda of the white collar variety can be made equally effective in the vocational field and that, by starting early in the life of the boy, we can instil in him a favorable attitude towards trades training. Here is where you vocational teachers and your academic brothers and sisters come in, as you wield a powerful influence over the future of American youth.

I wonder if you realize that in your hands lies the keystone that will support American industry. I wonder if you realize what decreased production means in terms of higher living costs and greater social unrest. How can production be maintained if skilled labor is lacking? How is the supply of skilled labor to be maintained when it is dying off five times faster than it is being developed? I am not a calamity howler, but we must face facts as they are. I have sufficient faith in America to feel that she will rise equal to the occasion.

A nation's wealth is usually classified into two major factors, its natural resources and its people, yet abundance of either or both does not necessarily produce a great nation. Take China for example. It is blessed with

immense natural resources and is teeming with population, yet China is not a great nation. What is there that differentiates between China and America? Is it not that America with its great natural resources, has had a sufficient corps of educated labor, skilled in the technic of the arts, to fully exploit these resources?

Personally, I am not prone to laud Germany, but we must not be so prejudiced as to blindly shut our eyes to good wherever it may exist. Let me quote from a report made before the war by a congressional committee on vocational education:

Relatively to other countries, the only conditions more favorable in Germany to industrial and commercial development in 1871, were a greater poverty of her people, less abundant natural resources, and a greater necessity of providing at home for the employment and maintenance of a rapidly increasing population. France, with a richer soil, had not the stimulus of an increasing population and England, with abundant supplies of coal and iron available for domestic manufacturers possessed in her colonial empire an outlet for her surplus population. While, however, other European peoples, whose necessity and poverty were equally as great as were those of Germany, have not found in their necessities a stimulus to economic advancement, Germany has risen, within the lifetime of the present generation, from a position of commercial and industrial insignificance to a position of dominance in the markets of the world, largely as a direct consequence of the work of her vocational, technical and technological schools.

In the decade, 1901 to 1911, Germany increased the volume of her foreign trade, including imports for consumption and domestic exports of merchandise, from \$2,344,939,000 to \$4,238,175,000, an increase of 81 percent. In the same period the foreign commerce of the United States increased from \$2,318,499,000 to \$3,591,480,000, an increase of 55 percent. In 1901 the volume of our foreign commerce was nearly equal to that of Germany, in 1911 Germany's foreign commerce exceeded ours by more than \$646,696,000. Germany has created her markets with the diverse products of her skilled artisans and she has created her artisans by a universal system of vocational education.

It is such a system of vocational education, that is being planned for Philadelphia through the cooperation of the Philadelphia public schools with the Philadelphia Metal Manufacturers Association. A plan has recently been adopted by which the metal working establishments of Philadelphia will take into their shops apprentices who will be trained as all-around mechanics. If this cannot be done in one shop, then the boy will be circulated through a number of shops sufficient to give him the well-rounded experience he seeks, that the employers wish him to obtain and that, as an apprentice, he has the right to demand. The related academic or theoretical instruction will be given by the public schools, probably Saturday morning. The boys will be paid by the employer for this time spent in the classroom at the same rate as if he were working productively in the shop, and they will insist on his attendance at these classes and that satisfactory progress must be reported by the instructors. Time lost in the classroom will not be paid for and lack of progress may be cause for dismissal.

A similar cooperative activity is being furthered by the division of indus-

trial arts of the Philadelphia public schools under the guidance of C. F. Bauder. In this the boys taking vocational courses, after becoming 16 years of age, are taken, on the part-time plan, by industry and given alternating experience on practical work and in classroom instruction, such as is being done elsewhere. The unique feature of this plan is that the scheme is being actively supported by the local association of metal manufacturers. Probably boys, graduating from the later course, will be given a very attractive allowance to enter and complete the former to the end that Philadelphia may have an adequate supply of skilled labor and if the movement spreads, that America's industrial supremacy may not be dimmed.

Let me add to the above something concerning the opportunities in the metal trades. As pointed out previously, the number of skilled men is falling off, mainly due to the natural mortality and that this death rate is five times faster than the present rate of recruiting. The wages of skilled mechanics have increased greatly in the last few years, partly due to the war, partly due to labor scarcity, and partly due to improved economic conditions. Fifteen years ago a good mechanic received from 36 to 46 cents per hour, now rates as high as 80 cents to \$1 per hour are not unusual. We have boys who have been off the course as little as three years, who are earning well over \$2000 a year. These boys are approximately 23 years old. A boy leaving school at 16 years of age and spending four years as an apprentice may very easily reach these rates within five or six years. It, as part of his apprenticeship, he has had sufficient related instruction to make it possible, he can advance to such positions as that of foreman, general foreman, or superintendent. In the Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Company nearly all of the shop executives and many of the other executives are the product of the apprentice system and this is also true of many other large corporations. A survey made under the supervision of the National Association for Corporation Training, the predecessors of the present American Management Association, indicates that in a number of our old established firms as high as 25 percent of the employees and nearly all of the executives started as apprentices and it is worthy of note that in such organizations labor difficulties are at a minimum. There is something of the same feeling in an apprentice toward the mother shop, as a college graduate has for his alma mater and where this feeling is fostered by executives who are graduates of the same mill, there is little cause for industrial strife and such as may develop can more readily be adjusted than where this spirit of harmony does not exist. For you teachers as well as for we industrialists, this matter of trades training may easily assume the aspects of a patriotic duty. As the number of skilled men decreases, the volume of production also decreases. As the volume of production decreases, unit costs necessarily increase, which involves an increase in the cost of living and an increase in the cost of living entails a greater degree of social unrest and, therefore, it follows that unless there can be instituted in schools and industry a comprehensive scheme of apprentice training sufficiently adequate to meet the exigencies of the situation, there

can be no other result than to cause a downfall of America's industrial supremacy. This must never be.

There may be some who fear that all the high places in industry will fall to the lot of the technical graduate. Let me state a few figures in reference to this supposition. In 1919, the last year for which data is available, there were 290,105 manufacturing establishments in America. Many of these were probably one man concerns where practical knowledge and experience would be essential. In 1921 there were 196,269 establishments producing more than \$5000 worth of products per year. This figure does not include automobile repair shops. These 196,269 firms employed 6,946,564 hands or an average of 35 men per firm. Taking an average expectancy of 25 years, there would have to be added approximately 275,000 men to the ranks of industry per year. There are approximately 5000 technical men graduated per year. Where, then, are the leaders of this vast army of industry to come from? Certainly not from the technical schools. They must be developed by a comprehensive scheme of apprenticeship. Does this not spell opportunity, in capital letters, for the American boy?

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Philadelphia Meeting

The summer meetings of the Department of Vocational Education of the National Education Association were held Tuesday and Thursday, June 29 and July 1 in the Auditorium of the Spring Garden Institute.

Charles F. Bauder, Director of Industrial Arts, Philadelphia, was the presiding officer of the Tuesday meeting. The program was opened by Isabel Craig Bacon, Special Agent Retail Education, Federal Board for Vocational Education, who gave a most interesting paper upon Retail Store Training in Paris. Miss Bacon was the guest of the French Government and was invited to Paris for the purpose of familiarizing the French department store executives with the American methods of training for retail store service. As Chairman Bauder pointed out, such recognition is a decided compliment to the efficacy of the training program conducted by the Federal Board for Vocational Education under Miss Bacon's supervision in this field. Miss Bacon stated that not only was France interested in furthering a similar program to ours, but England and Holland were ready to undertake the training of retail store employees. She pointed out that the growth of retail store service in America had been phenomenal. The first school was started in 1905 in Boston and the work has developed to such a point that the National Dry Goods Association is employing a full time educational director and some state retail merchants associations have found it worth their while to place full time educational workers in the field.

F. Theodore Struck, Director, Bureau of Vocational Education, State Department of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Pa., discussed "Developments in Industrial Arts Education." He pointed out that Philadelphia was the cradle of the manual training movement and that the present observance of the sesquicentennial of American Liberty was a fitting time to summarize achievements in manual arts since it was first introduced fifty years ago during the centennial exposition where examples of work in wood and iron were exhibited from the Imperial Technical

School at St. Petersburg. He skilfully led the group through the history of the movement, the early claims made for it as a panacea for all educational ills, and its gradual transition into our present concept of the movement. He emphasized that manual arts is today recognized as an essential part of general education; that it precedes vocational education, and that it forms the necessary background for the latter form of specialized instruction. He discussed the topics of wider recognition of the needs of industrial arts education. He emphasized the diversified program. He covered the exploration and try-out possibilities and followed with careful descriptions of the general shop, unit shops, home mechanics, and last, but not least, ways and means of securing better teachers. He concluded by saying: "The standard of teaching is going up in industrial arts education as in other branches of education. A well-qualified industrial arts teacher should be able to meet the professional requirements of other teachers in general education. In addition he should have had, or should secure while in service, practical trade training that will give him a rich background of experience and knowledge that will be very useful. Technical training cannot entirely replace, even for industrial arts teachers the experience that comes from working at a skilled trade.

The next speaker was Frederick Horridge, Head, Department of Vocational Education, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. He outlined a comprehensive state plan for the training of trade teachers. He stated: "The efficacy of a vocational program is no better than the standards of its teachers. The vocational teacher's job is specific. Manual arts came into being not because of its being specific training but rather for the purpose of enriching the existing curriculum. Shop work was used to motivate other subjects. National security and industrial preparedness are identical. One cannot teach a trade effectively unless he is a master of his craft but a master of a craft need not of necessity prove to be good teacher." He pointed out the need of differentiating the different programs according to the subjects to be taught by the individual teacher. He objected to the same training program for the general continuation teacher and the auto mechanics teacher. He pointed out the various methods for making contact with the tradesmen. He emphasized the need of so certifying trades teachers that local city vocational directors would be able to employ men in the immediate field and have them trained while on the job. He described a carefully worked out plan for issuing certificates of varying grades so that the teachers in the field must of necessity continue their training until thoroughly prepared for the job in hand.

The Thursday program was opened by Ruth Sill, Principal of the Girls' Trade School, Philadelphia. She stated in part: "The business of public education is a huge business and is still expanding. It has developed tremendously from the early days when it offered opportunities to the favored few to today when compulsory education is a duty. The apparent development of this gigantic business will be to offer opportunities at all times to citizens of all ages that each may develop his abilities to the utmost. This development will offer opportunities for social, cultural, and vocational fields. Finding your place in life means training for successful living. About 75 percent of the young people under eighteen in the schools today will probably enter industry. What can a trade school do to train girls and women in industry?" She then outlined the success of the Philadelphia Trade School for Girls in preparing them for placement in dressmaking, millinery, novelties, machine operating fields.

The next speaker was R. F. Carey, Supervisor of Education, Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Co., Lester, Pa. He stated: "Modern industry is very much in a position of an apparently healthy, robust, vigorous man who has some insidious disease eating at his vitals. He is living on his reserve strength. The metal working trades are inducting relatively few young men into their ranks. The armies of industry are becoming armies of old men but sooner or later will

become armies of dead men." He then outlined ways and means of training apprentices to meet this great need of American industry.

The function of Industrial Arts in the Early Grades was outlined by Adele Rudolph, Supervisor of Elementary Industrial Arts, Public Schools, Philadelphia. Miss Rudolph enthusiastically outlined her successful attempts to have the young boy and girl in the elementary grades work with the smaller tools in the same manner that they would work at home in producing a great variety of projects closely allied to their actual life environment and interests. She presented a baby grand piano built by a seven-year-old boy out of miscellaneous blocks of wood that he had picked up about a building job and showed the extent to which this project had aroused his powers of observation and his desires for accuracy in measurement.

The meeting was closed by G. A. McGarvey, Agent, Industrial Education, Federal Board for Vocational Education, Washington. Mr. McGarvey outlined the Present Tendencies in Vocational Education. His years of experience and contact with every phase of this field in many parts of the country enabled him to present a clear-cut statement of the tendencies of the times. Briefly outlined the most important factors were: Increased interest upon the part of industry throughout the state and nation in vocational education expressed through National Trade Associations. He outlined the great expenditures made by these organizations in employing educational directors, in preparing courses of study, and in the many other activities of these groups leading towards increased efficiency upon the part of the workers. A tendency in some parts of the country is to carry on vocational training programs in larger units, such as county trade schools. He pointed out that such an organization led to greater economy in operating costs and enabled the smaller towns to benefit to the same extent that the larger cities in the country benefited by a vocational training center. He emphasized the importance on the part of the manufacturing and building interests in cooperating with local city and state boards of education in the organizing of apprentice training committees and the willingness to spend large sums of money in furnishing supplies and equipment to the educational authorities for the training of workers in their respective crafts.

At the close of the meeting the following committee for the nomination of officers for 1926-27 were appointed:

Chas. F. Bauder, Director of Industrial Arts, Philadelphia.

H. Price, Director of Vocational Education, Battle Creek, Mich.

L. Lundgren, Director of Vocational and Adult Vocational Education, San Francisco.

The following officers were nominated:

President: H. L. Briggs, Director of Vocational and Practical Arts Education, Cleveland, Ohio

Vicepresident: F. Theodore Struck, Director, Bureau of Vocational Education, State Department of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Pa.

Secretary: N. S. Hundson, State Director of Vocational Education, Austin, Texas.

World Federation of Education Associations

THE WORLD FEDERATION OF EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS was the outgrowth of a World Conference on Education which was called by the Committee on Foreign Relations of the National Education Association to meet at San Francisco, in July, 1923, in connection with the National Education Association Convention there. The first biennial meeting of the World Federation of Education Associations was held in Edinburgh, Scotland, in July, 1925, and was attended by approximately 2000 people, nearly 1400 of whom were delegates from almost every country in the world. The officers of the World Federation of Education Associations for the years 1925-27 are: *President*, Augustus O. Thomas, Augusta, Maine; *Vicepresidents*, E. J. Sainsbury, Thames Ditton, Surrey, England; Harry Charlesworth, Victoria, Canada; P. W. Kuo, Shanghai, China; *Secretary-Treasurer*, Charles H. Williams, Columbia, Missouri; *Board of Directors*, four-year term, Walter Siders, Pocatello, Idaho; Mary Tweedie, Edinburgh, Scotland; Frank W. Goldstone, London, England; D. D. MacDonald, Toronto, Canada; P. Ling, Tientsin, China; *Board of Directors*, two-year term, George C. Pringle, Edinburgh, Scotland; E. J. Sainsbury, Thames Ditton, Surrey, England; C. P. Murphy, Cork, Ireland; P. W. Kuo, Shanghai, China; Harry Charlesworth, Victoria, Canada; M. Sawayanagi, Tokio, Japan; Mary C. C. Bradford, Denver, Colorado. Facts relating to the establishment of the World Federation of Education Associations and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1921: 176-182 1922: 312-317 1923: 106. 402-424 1924: 272-274 1925: 913-927

THE WORLD FEDERATION OF EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS

IN ANNOUNCING its second biennial meeting in Toronto, Canada, in August, 1927, the World Federation of Education Associations published a handbook from which the following is taken:

What the Federation is—The World Federation is an educational organization of world-wide scope. It is spiritual but non-sectarian. It is civic but non-political. It joins the educational forces of the world through the leaders in all countries. It seeks to find the most direct and effective way of inculcating into the lives of the rising generations the virtues which society needs. It seeks not to standardize education in the sixty-three sovereign countries but to find those elements of education which are universal and apply them to the good of all nations. It is a great cooperative conspiracy for good, believing that as the children are taught, so the future will be.

History of the organization—At the close of the Great War there was a universal desire to find some common ground upon which the nations could get together. The opinion was universal that some method must be found to drive out hate from the hearts of men and substitute the spirit of friendliness, goodwill, and justice. The nations could not come together on political grounds, on economic grounds or on religious grounds. Where, therefore, could there be found a common ground upon which the nations, regardless of the form of their religion or their economic or political conditions, could get together?

The National Education Association of the United States believed that since education deals with truth and that truth is universal, knowing no national boundaries, since teaching is conscious guidance and that the schools must consciously guide not only the individuals but groups of individuals which make up the communities and nations, education, therefore, is the one great constructive force which should be utilized to advance the status of civilization. This organization instructed its Committee on Foreign Relations to prepare a program to fit into the general program of the National Education Association Convention and which would emphasize the necessity of cooperation and of goodwill among the nations. After the committee began its work, it found an eagerness on the part of the peoples of the world to get together, and many countries suggested their willingness to send delegates to a world conference on education. The Association, therefore, directed its Foreign Relations Committee to call such a conference and to extend the hand of fellowship to all nations.

The World Conference on Education—The Conference was called for San Francisco in July, 1923, in connection with the National Education Association. It was attended by about six hundred delegates from practically sixty countries. Many nations sent delegates directly at national expense. There was a tremendous interest manifested. The Conference was a dramatic spectacle in the life of the nations. It was P. W. Kuo, Presi-

dent of the Southeastern University of China at Nanking, who said, "They said we could not get together on account of our prejudices. We have shown the world that we can lay aside our prejudices while we solve our problems."

Permanent organization—The outstanding achievement of the World Conference on Education held at San Francisco in 1923 was the formation of a permanent organization to be known as the World Federation of Education Associations. This was not to be an evanescent affair. It was to be placed upon a permanent basis with a suitable financial foundation, with a definite program or group of objectives and the work prosecuted vigorously to the end that education might render its share of service to the struggling world.

Special Objectives

1. To promote friendship, justice, and goodwill among the nations of the world.
2. To bring about a world-wide tolerance of the rights and privileges of all nations regardless of race or creed.
3. To develop an appreciation of the value of inherited gifts of nations and races.
4. To secure more satisfying information and more adequate statement of facts for textbooks used in the schools of the different countries.
5. To foster a national comradeship and confidence which will produce a more sympathetic appreciation among all nations.
6. To develop the consciousness of an international morality in the minds and hearts of the rising generation.
7. Finally, throughout the world, in all schools, to emphasize the essential unity of mankind and the evils of war and to develop a psychology of peace, together with a true patriotism based upon love of country rather than upon hatred of other peoples and countries.

The Raphael Herman Prize—After the San Francisco meeting, Raphael Herman of Washington, D. C., a public-spirited and patriotic citizen, became interested in the program set up by the World Conference on Education. He had long been interested in the subject of peace. He was successful in business and, now retired, wanted to use his ability and his means in promoting this greatest world need. He placed \$25,000 in the hands of the Federation as a prize for the best educational plan calculated to produce world peace. Plans were submitted in twenty-one different languages and from as many countries. The jury consisted of outstanding men and women in the professional and business world. The contest was world-wide and practically a year was devoted to the contest. Plans were limited to five thousand words and only such plans as could be undertaken by an educational organization were considered.

The Herman-Jordan plan—The jury awarded the \$25,000 prize offered by Mr. Herman to the veteran educator, David Starr Jordan, Chancellor-

Emeritus of Leland Stanford University. Dr. Jordan's work as a scientist, as an administrator of a great institution and his interest in humane progress have made him practically a world citizen, and his study of war and its consequences fitted him admirably for writing such a thesis as was required by the rules of the contest. Dr. Jordan set up a series of fact-finding committees to make definite studies, unprejudiced, open-minded and with only one aim, that of finding the truth. The judges believed it was better to proceed carefully and know the ground before definite materials, methods, processes and attitudes were set up. Based upon the findings of these five committees, the World Federation will undertake to work out definite educational programs. They will be more sure of their ground and less liable to retrace their steps than if programs were set up without preliminary study. The Edinburgh meeting accepted the plan as proposed by the judges and authorized the appointment of the five committees:

The five committees of the Herman-Jordan plan—(1) The formation of a general world committee on education for peace to function in connection with the several educational groups in the different nations and to cooperate with many already established organizations for peace in all parts of the world. (2) A committee to investigate the present teaching of history the world over, reporting also upon textbooks used, their virtues and their delinquencies and from the standpoint of international amity, stressing the need that history, whether elementary or advanced, should be just and true so far as it goes. Above all, history should not be perverted in the supposed interest of national honor or partisanship. It also provided within this committee for the study of intelligent patriotism built upon love of country rather than upon hatred of national foes. (3) The appointment of a committee to consider special plans for promoting mutual international understanding on the part of students of various ages, including the possibilities of better relations through the international use of athletic sports, especially those games which involve cooperative action or team play as distinguished from individual competition. (4) A committee to investigate the current arguments for war as a cosmic necessity. This committee should consider without prejudice the question of military training in school and college, its possible advantages to the individual and the nation, with the alleged accompanying drawbacks and dangers. This committee should also deliberate on standing incentives to war and the possibilities of their abatement through the influence of public opinion or otherwise. (5) A committee to study the Hague Court of Arbitration, also the present permanent court of international justice and the relation of these two judicial activities to world education, to determine, if possible, what international activities of this nature should furnish material for instruction within the schools and how to broach the subject in a fair-minded and open manner.

Special committees—The Edinburgh meeting provided for a number of special committees especially pertaining to education in universities. Committee on Resolution No. 12—universities: "That the Federation utilize and advance inquiry into universities—their history, contemporary develop-

ments, possibilities—and to investigate the question of the establishment of a world university." Committee on Resolution No. 13—Fields of knowledge: "That the Federation inquire into the interrelations and increasing unifications of the various fields of knowledge and research toward a fuller and clearer coordination of subjects of instruction accordingly, with endeavor to bring about a greater unification of scientific terminology." Committee on Resolution No. 14—Bibliography: "That the Federation encourage the establishment of a universal library office and inquire into methods of bibliography and their possible advances. This office may ultimately be connected with the world or international university."

Commissions—In order to promote certain phases of the work which was undertaken at the San Francisco Conference, special commissions have been authorized. (1) *Commission on Illiteracy*: Universal education becomes an essential to what is known as the modern form of government in which the people as they become educated are more and more given specific powers and privileges within the government. This necessitates a widespread or universal opportunity for an education. Much work has been done in many of the countries for the relief of illiteracy since the San Francisco meeting. The Commission on Illiteracy contains distinguished educators and statesmen from many countries. (2) *World Health Committee*: At the Edinburgh meeting, the chairman, as directed by the plenary session, appointed a permanent Committee of the Health Section to carry forward the special program of education adopted by the health section and approved by the Federation. Distinguished men and women in the field of health education constitute this committee and far-reaching accomplishments are already recorded.

World Goodwill Day—The World Federation has sponsored May 18, the anniversary of the Hague Tribunal, as World Goodwill Day. Bulletins have been issued, programs suggested, and celebrations have been conducted in many lands. The purpose of the day is to teach in the schools the lessons of friendship and goodwill to the children of the world. Pageants, plays, songs of many lands, a study of the flags of the nations of the world, essays and compositions, the promotion of school correspondence, the study of world civics or international contacts are suggested as direct means.

The Edinburgh meeting—Japan intended to invite the first biennial meeting to Tokio and sent in a tentative proposition of \$50,000 to take care of the expenses of the meeting, but the earthquake necessitated the withdrawal of the invitation. The ancient city of Edinburgh, through a group of organizations headed by the Educational Institute of Scotland, extended an invitation and agreed to raise a definite sum of money for the purpose of promoting the enterprise. Their invitation was accepted and the meeting convened in July, 1925. There were approximately fourteen hundred delegates from practically every country in the world. The meetings, however, were attended by about two thousand persons, consisting not only of educators but of statesmen, financiers, and persons interested in

the world's greatest problem. The Edinburgh meeting was a brilliant event in the history of education. It demonstrated the fact that its future as a permanent salient force in the direction of the civilization of the world is assured. It was a fine thing for the educators of all countries to meet, to sit down in conference on educational problems, to tell about their methods of procedure, their aims of education, and the conditions under which they work. This, in itself, was of tremendous value but when coupled with a definite program of promotion, backed by men and women who appreciate the importance of education in directing the forces of civilization in an intelligent manner, it constitutes a great world force.

Education must do its fair share—Education alone cannot and does not expect to do all. There are other forces of civilization vital to ultimate achievement. Diplomacy must be open, sincere, unselfish, and must be lifted from the realm of partisan politics. Business is a salient force in international contact. Business must learn to place humanity ahead of the dollar. It must be spiritualized and placed upon a high plane of integrity. Perhaps the greatest cooperative force is the church which is the foundation of religious relations for both the individual and the group. It must necessarily grow broad and tolerant. If these great forces cooperate in a definite and sympathetic way, the desired end may be reached.

Associational Records and Information

Associational Records and Information

1857—1870

THE NATIONAL TEACHERS ASSOCIATION

Organized August 26, 1857, at Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

PURPOSE—*To elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching and to promote the cause of popular education in the United States.*

The name of the Association was changed at Cleveland, Ohio, on August 15, 1870, to the "National Educational Association."

1870—1907

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

Incorporated under the laws of the District of Columbia, February 24, 1886, under the name, "National Education Association," which was changed to "National Educational Association," by certificate filed November 6, 1886.

1907—

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES

Incorporated under a special act of Congress, approved June 30, 1906, to succeed the "National Educational Association." The charter was accepted and by-laws were adopted at the Fiftieth Anniversary Convention held July 10, 1907, at Los Angeles, California.

ACT OF INCORPORATION

AN ACT TO INCORPORATE THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled:

SECTION 1. That the following-named persons, who are now officers and directors and trustees of the National Educational Association, a corporation organized in the year eighteen hundred and eighty-six, under the Act of General Incorporation of the Revised Statutes of the District of Columbia, viz.:

*Nathan C. Schaeffer, *Eliphalet Oram Lyte, *John W. Lamsinger, of Pennsylvania; Isaac W. Hill, of Alabama; Arthur J. Matthews, of Arizona; John H. Hinemon, *George B. Cook, of Arkansas; *Joseph O'Connor, *Josiah L. Pickard, Arthur H. Chamberlain, of California; *Aaron Gove, *Ezekiel H. Cook, Lewis C. Greenlee, of Colorado; *Charles H. Keyes, of Connecticut; *George W. Twitmyer, of Delaware; *J. Ormond Wilson, *William T. Harris, *Alexander T. Stuart, of the District of Columbia; Clem Hampton, of Florida; *William M. Slaton, of Georgia; *Frances Mann, of Idaho; J. Stanley Brown, *Albert G. Lane, *Charles I. Parker, *John W. Cook, *Joshua Pike, Albert R. Taylor, *Joseph A. Mercer, of Illinois; *Nebraska Cropsey,	List of Incorporators
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Thomas A. Mott, of Indiana; John D. Benedict, of Indian Territory; John F. Riggs, Ashley V. Storm, of Iowa; John W. Spindler, Jasper N. Wilkinson, *A. V. Jewett, *Luther D. Whittemore, of Kansas; William Henry Bartholomew, of Kentucky; *Warren Easton, of Louisiana; *John S. Locke, of Maine; M. Bates Stephens, of Maryland; Charles W. Eliot, *Mary H. Hunt, Henry T. Bailey, of Massachusetts; Hugh A. Graham, Charles G. White, William H. Elson, of Michigan; *William F. Phelps, *Irwin Shepard, John A. Cranston, of Minnesota; Robert B. Fulton, of Mississippi; *F. Louis Soldan, *James M. Greenwood, William J. Hawkins, of Missouri; *Oscar J. Craig, of Montana; George L. Towne, of Nebraska; *Joseph E. Stubbs, of Nevada; James E. Klock, of New Hampshire; *James M. Green, John Enright, of New Jersey; *Charles M. Light, of New Mexico; *James H. Canfield, Nicholas Murray Butler, *William H. Maxwell, Charles R. Skinner, *Albert P. Marble, James C. Byrnes of New York; James Y. Joyner, Julius Isaac Foust, of North Carolina; *Pitt Gordon Knowlton, of North Dakota; Oscar T. Corson, Jacob A. Shawan, Wells L. Griswold, of Ohio; Edgar S. Vaught, Andrew R. Hickham, of Oklahoma; *Charles Carroll Stratton, Edwin D. Ressler, of Oregon; *Thomas W. Bicknell, Walter Ballou Jacobs, of Rhode Island; David B. Johnson, Robert P. Pell, of South Carolina; Moritz Adelbert Lange, of South Dakota; Eugene F. Turner, of Tennessee; Lloyd E. Wolf, of Texas; David H. Christensen, of Utah; *Henry O. Wheeler, Isaac Thomas, of Vermont; Joseph L. Jarman, of Virginia; Edward T. Mathes, of Washington; *T. Marcellus Marshall, Lucy Robinson, of West Virginia; *Lorenzo D. Harvey, of Wisconsin; *Thomas T. Tynan, of Wyoming; Cassia Patton, of Alaska; Frank H. Ball, of Porto Rico; Arthur F. Griffiths, of Hawaii; C. H. Maxson, of the Philippine Islands; and such other persons as now are or may hereafter be associated with them as officers or members of said Association, are hereby incorporated and declared to be a body corporate of the District of Columbia by the name of the "National Education Association of the United States," and by that name shall be known and have perpetual succession with the powers, limitations, and restrictions herein contained.

SEC. 2. That the purpose and object of the said corporation shall be to elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching and to promote the cause of education in the United States. This corporation shall include the National Council of Education and the following departments, and such others as may hereafter be created by organization or consolidation, to-wit: The Departments, first, of Superintendence; second, of Normal Schools; third of Elementary Education; fourth, of Higher Education; fifth, of Manual Training; sixth, of Art Education; seventh, of Kindergarten Education; eighth, of Music Education; ninth, of Secondary Education; tenth, of Business Education; eleventh, of Child Study; twelfth, of Physical Education; thirteenth, of Natural Science Instruction; fourteenth, of School Administration; fifteenth, the Library Department; sixteenth, of Special Education; seventeenth, of Indian Education; the powers and duties and the number and names of these departments and of the National Council of Education may be changed or abolished at the pleasure of the corporation, as provided in its by-laws.

SEC. 3. That the said corporation shall further have power to have and to use a common seal, and to alter and change the same at its pleasure; to sue or to be sued in any court of the United States, or other court of competent jurisdiction, to make by-laws not inconsistent with the provisions of this act or of the Constitution of the United States; to take or receive, whether by gift, grant, devise, bequest, or purchase, any real or personal estate, and to hold, grant, convey, hire or lease the same for the purpose of its incorporation; and to accept and administer any trust of real or personal estate for any educational purpose within the objects of the corporation.

* Deceased.

SEC. 4. That all real property of the corporation within the District of Columbia which shall be used by the corporation for the educational or other purposes of the corporation as aforesaid other than the purposes of producing income, and all personal property and funds of the corporation held, used, or invested for educational purposes aforesaid, or to produce income to be used for such purposes, shall be exempt from taxation; *provided*, however, that this exemption shall not apply to any property of the corporation which shall not be used for, or the income of which shall not be applied to, the educational purposes of the corporation; and, *provided further*, That the corporation shall annually file, with the Commissioner of Education of the United States, a report in writing, stating in detail the property, real and personal, held by the corporation, and the expenditure or other use or disposition of the same, or the income thereof, during the preceding year.

**Property to be
Tax-Exempt**

SEC. 5. That the membership of the said corporation shall consist of three classes of members—viz., active, associate, and corresponding—whose qualifications, terms of membership, rights, and obligations shall be prescribed by the by-laws of the corporation.

Members

SEC. 6. That the officers of the said corporation shall be a President, twelve Vice-Presidents, a Secretary, a Treasurer, a Board of Directors, an Executive Committee, and a Board of Trustees.

Officers

The Board of Directors shall consist of the President, the First Vice-President, the Secretary, the Treasurer, the Chairman of the Board of Trustees, and one additional member from each State, Territory, or district, to be elected by the active members for the term of one year, or until their successors are chosen, and of all life directors of the National Educational Association. The United States Commissioner of Education, and all former presidents of the said Association now living, and all future Presidents of the Association hereby incorporated, at the close of their respective terms of office, shall be members of the Board of Directors for life. The Board of Directors shall have power to fill all vacancies in their own body; shall have in charge the general interests of the corporation, excepting those herein intrusted to the Board of Trustees; and shall possess such other powers as shall be conferred upon them by the by-laws of the corporation.

**Board of
Directors**

The Executive Committee shall consist of five members, as follows: the President of the Association, the First Vice-President, the Treasurer, the Chairman of the Board of Trustees, and a member of the Association, to be chosen annually by the Board of Directors, to serve one year. The said committee shall have authority to represent, and to act for the Board of Directors in the intervals between the meetings of that body, to the extent of carrying out the legislation adopted by the Board of Directors under general directions as may be given by said board.

**Executive
Committee**

The Board of Trustees shall consist of four members elected by the Board of Directors for the term of four years, and the President of the Association, who shall be a member *ex officio* during his term of office. At the first meeting of the Board of Directors, held during the annual meeting of the Association, at which they were elected, they shall elect one trustee for the term of four years. All vacancies occurring in said Board of Trustees, whether by resignation or otherwise, shall be filled by the Board of Directors for the unexpired term; and the absence of a trustee from two successive annual meetings of the board shall forfeit his membership.

**Board of
Trustees**

SEC. 7. That the invested fund now known as the "Permanent Fund of the National Educational Association," when transferred to the corporation hereby created, shall be held by such corporation as a Permanent Fund and shall be in

**Permanent
Fund**

charge of the Board of Trustees, who shall provide for the safekeeping and investment of such fund, and of all other funds which the corporation may receive by donation, bequest, or devise. No part of the principal of such Permanent Fund

or its accretions shall be expended, except by a two thirds vote of the active members of the Association present at any annual meeting, upon the recommendation of the Board of Trustees, after such recommendation has been approved by vote of the Board of Directors, and after printed notice of the proposed expenditure has been mailed to all active members of the Association. The income of the Permanent Fund shall be used only to meet the cost of maintaining the organization of the Association and of publishing its annual volume of *Proceedings*, unless the terms of the donation, bequest, or devise shall otherwise specify, or the Board of Directors shall otherwise order. It shall also be the duty of the Board

**Duties of
Trustees**

of Trustees to issue orders on the Treasurer for the payment of all bills approved by the Board of Directors, or by the President and Secretary of the Association acting under the authority of the Board of Directors. When practicable, the

Board of Trustees shall invest, as part of the Permanent Fund, all surplus funds exceeding \$500 that shall remain in the hands of the Treasurer after paying the expenses of the Association for the previous year, and providing for the fixed expenses and for all appropriations made by the Board of Directors for the ensuing year.

**Election of
Secretary**

The Board of Trustees shall elect the Secretary of the Association, who shall also be Secretary of the Executive Committee, and shall fix the compensation and the term of his office for a period not to exceed four years.

SEC. 8. That the principal office of the said corporation shall be in the city of Washington, D. C.; *provided*, That the meetings of the corporation, its officers, committees, and departments, may be held, and that its business may be transacted, and an office or offices may be maintained, elsewhere, within the United States, as may

**Location of
Office**

be determined by the Board of Directors, or otherwise in accordance with the by-laws.

SEC. 9. That the charter, constitution, and by-laws of the National Educational Association shall continue in full force and effect until the charter granted by this act shall be accepted by such Association at the next annual meeting of the

**Acceptance of
This Charter**

Association, and until new by-laws shall be adopted; and that the present officers, directors, and trustees of said Association shall continue to hold office and perform their respective duties as such until the expiration of terms for which they

were severally elected or appointed, and until their successors are elected. That at such annual meeting the active members of the National Educational Association, then present, may organize and proceed to accept the charter granted by this act and adopt by-laws, to elect officers to succeed those whose terms have expired or are about to expire, and generally to organize the "National Education Association of the United States"; and that the Board of Trustees of the corporation hereby incorporated shall thereupon, if the charter granted by this act be accepted, receive, take over, and enter into possession, custody, and management of all property, real and personal, of the corporation heretofore known as the National Educational Association incorporated as aforesaid, under the Revised Statutes of the District of Columbia and all its rights, contracts, claims, and property of every kind and nature whatsoever, and the several officers, directors, and trustees of such

last-named Association, or any other person having charge of any of the securities, funds, books or property thereof, real or personal, shall on demand deliver the same to the proper officers, directors, or trustees of the corporation hereby created. *Provided*, That a verified certificate executed by the presiding officer and secretary of such annual meeting, showing the acceptance of the charter granted by this act by the National Educational Association, shall be legal evidence of the fact, when filed with the Recorder of Deeds of the District of Columbia; and, *provided further*, That in the event of the failure of the Association to accept the charter granted by this act at said annual meeting then the charter of the National Educational Association and its incorporate existence shall be and are hereby extended until the thirty-first day of July, nineteen hundred and eight, and at any time before said date its charter may be extended in the manner and form provided by the general corporation of the District of Columbia.

SEC. 10. That the rights of creditors of the said existing corporation, known as the National Educational Association, shall not in any manner be impaired by the passage of this act, or the transfer of the property heretofore mentioned, nor shall any liability or obligation, or the payment of any sum due or to become due, or any claim or demand, in any manner, or for any cause existing against the said existing corporation, be released or impaired; and the corporation hereby incorporated is declared to succeed to the obligations and liabilities, and to be held liable to pay and discharge all of its debts, liabilities, and contracts of the said corporation so existing, to the same effect as if such new corporation had itself incurred the obligation or liability to pay such debt or damages, and no action or proceeding before any court or tribunal shall be deemed to have abated or been discontinued by reason of this act.

**Rights of
Creditors**

SEC. 11. The Congress may from time to time alter, repeal, or modify this act of incorporation, but no contract or individual right made or acquired shall thereby be divested or impaired.

**Amendments
to Charter**

SEC. 12. That said corporation may provide, by amendment to its by-laws, that the powers of the active members exercised at the annual meeting in the election of officers and the transaction of business shall be vested in and exercised by a representative assembly composed of delegates apportioned, elected, and governed in accordance with the provisions of the by-laws adopted by said corporation.

**Creation of
Representative
Assembly**

Sections 1-11 were passed by Congress and approved by the President, June 30, 1906. They were accepted and adopted as the constitution of the National Educational Association of the United States by the active members of the National Educational Association in annual session at Los Angeles, California, July 10, 1907.

Section 12 was passed by Congress and approved by the President of the United States, May 13, 1920, as an amendment to the original act of incorporation. It was accepted and adopted as an amendment to the constitution of the National Education Association of the United States by the active members thereof in annual session at Salt Lake City, Utah, July 9, 1920.

BYLAWS

(Complete as amended at the Annual Business Meeting of the Representative Assembly, Indianapolis, Indiana, July 3, 1925. Amendments made at the Indianapolis meeting are in italics.)

ARTICLE I—MEMBERSHIP

Membership Defined **SECTION 1.** The membership of the National Education Association of the United States shall consist of three classes, Active, Associate, and Corresponding, whose qualifications, rights, and obligations shall be as hereinafter prescribed.

SEC. 2. Active members of the Association shall be those actively engaged in the profession of teaching or other educational work at the time of their becoming members.

SEC. 3. The annual dues of an active member shall be \$2.00, which shall entitle him to attend all meetings of the Association and its several departments, to receive *The Journal* free, and, on application, to secure all publications of the Association at a price fixed by the Publication Committee, which shall be the approximate cost. By the payment of annual dues of \$5.00 an active member shall receive, in addition to *The Journal*, without application or other condition, the volume of Proceedings and all other regular publications of the Association, including reports of committees and all special bulletins and announcements when issued.

Life Members and Life Directors **SEC. 4.** All life members and life directors shall have all the rights and privileges of active members without the payment of annual dues, and shall receive free without application or condition the publications of the Association.

SEC. 5. Associate members of the Association shall be persons who are not actively engaged in the profession of teaching, but interested in the promotion of education. The annual dues of an associate member shall be the same as the dues of an active member, and he shall have the same rights and privileges excepting the right to vote and hold office.

Corresponding Members **SEC. 6.** Eminent educators not residing in America may be elected by the Board of Directors as corresponding members. The number of corresponding members shall not at any time exceed fifty. They shall pay no dues and may receive free the publications of the Association.

Membership Year **SEC. 7.** The membership year shall be from September 1 to August 31. All membership dues paid during the membership year shall be credited to that year unless otherwise requested.

Payment of Dues **SEC. 8.** The annual dues of members shall be sent to the Secretary on or before November 1. An active member failing to pay his dues as herein provided shall forfeit the privileges of membership and after being in arrears one half year be dropped from the list of members.

Membership Card **SEC. 9.** The Secretary of the Association shall furnish each member of the Association a Membership Card, declaring him to be a member of the National Education Association for the year for which his dues are paid, and as such entitled to all the rights and privileges granted by the charter and by-laws of the Association.

SEC. 10. The right to vote shall be limited to active members of the Association whose dues are paid. The right to hold office in the Association or in any department shall be limited to active members whose dues are paid. The right to vote and hold office in the Council shall be limited to members of the Council whose dues are paid. Each active member shall have one vote.

Right to Vote

ARTICLE II—ELECTION OF OFFICERS, REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY, AND AFFILIATED ASSOCIATIONS

SECTION 1. The election of officers and transaction of business at the annual business meeting shall be by a Representative Assembly composed of delegates apportioned, elected, and governed as hereinafter provided.

Election of Officers

SEC. 2. At the first Business meeting of the Representative Assembly on the second day of the annual meeting of the Association nominations for the following officers shall be made: President, Vice-President, and Treasurer. Candidates for said offices shall be nominated from the floor upon roll call of the states. On the first day of the annual meeting of the Association the delegates of each state, territory, and district of the United States shall nominate one person for member of the Board of Directors and the name of such person shall be reported to the Representative Assembly at the first business meeting upon roll call of the states. On the fourth day of the annual meeting officers shall be elected from the candidates by the delegates to the Representative Assembly by ballot. Said ballots shall be printed and shall contain the names of all nominees as provided above. Polls for voting shall be open from 8 A. M. to 6 P. M., at such place or places as the President of the Association shall designate. The candidates for President, Treasurer, member of Board of Directors from each state, territory, or district, respectively, and the eleven candidates for the office of Vice-President receiving the highest number of votes shall be declared elected. The President of the Association shall appoint tellers and complete all arrangements for carrying out the election. The results of the election herein provided shall be announced at the final business session of the Representative Assembly. The officers thus chosen shall continue in office until the close of the annual meeting subsequent to their election, and until their successors are chosen, except as herein provided. The Secretary and the Treasurer shall enter upon their duties at a date which shall be determined by the Board of Trustees and which shall not be later than the first of October and shall continue in office during the term for which they are separately chosen and until their successors are duly elected.

SEC. 3. The State Teachers Association or Educational Association of a state, territory, or district, may become affiliated with the National Education Association and shall be designated an Affiliated State Association. Each Affiliated State Association shall be a state unit in the organization of the National Education Association and as such shall be entitled to representation in the Representative Assembly as hereinafter provided. The annual dues of an Affiliated State Association shall be \$10 for each delegate to which said state shall be entitled, with a maximum of \$100. Said Association shall receive without application, or other condition, all regular publications of the National Education Association, including the volume of Proceedings, reports of committees, and all special bulletins and announcements when issued.

Affiliated State Associations

SEC. 4. A local educational association or teachers organization within a state, territory, or district, may affiliate with the National Education Association and shall be designated an Affiliated Local Association. Each Affiliated Local Association shall be a local unit in the organization of the National

Affiliated Local Associations Education Association and as such shall be entitled to representation in the Representative Assembly as hereinafter provided.

The annual dues of an Affiliated Local Association shall be \$5, which shall entitle said Association to receive without application, or other condition, all regular publications of the National Education Association, including the volume of Proceedings, reports of committees, and all bulletins and announcements when issued.

SEC. 5. Each Affiliated Association, both state and local, shall be furnished a certificate of membership and shall be entitled to the active assistance and support of the National Education Association in promoting the interest of such

Relationships: Affiliated Association and its members in so far as such interest comes within the purpose and object of the National Education Association as set forth in its charter. The Secretary of the National Education Association shall, with the advice and approval of the Executive Committee, make such arrangements

National, State, and Local for mutual cooperation between the National Education Association and the State and Local Affiliated Associations as will promote the welfare of all and advance the interests of the teaching profession.

SEC. 6. Each Affiliated State Association shall be entitled to elect one delegate and one alternate to the Representative Assembly for each one hundred of its members, or major fraction thereof, who are active members of the National Education

State Delegates Association, up to five hundred such active members, and thereafter one delegate and one alternate for each five hundred of its members, or major fraction thereof, who are active members of the National Education Association. Such delegates shall be designated State Delegates.

SEC. 7. Each Affiliated Local Association shall be entitled to elect one delegate and one alternate to the Representative Assembly for each one hundred of its members, or major fraction thereof, who are active members of the National Education Association. Such delegates shall be designated Local Delegates.

SEC. 8. Only active members of the National Education Association shall be eligible to be delegates to the Representative Assembly, and to vote in the election of delegates in a State or Local Affiliated Association. An active member shall

Selection of Delegates be permitted to vote for the election of delegates in but one Affiliated Local Association. For determining the apportionment of delegates, an active member may be counted in two affiliated associations, and no more; and that one of these shall be the State Association.

SEC. 9. The officers of the National Education Association as named in the charter and the State Superintendent or Commissioner of Education of each state, territory, and district, shall be *ex officio* delegates to the Representative Assembly.

Ex Officio Delegates The President of the Association shall preside at the annual meeting of the Representative Assembly, and the Secretary of the Association shall keep the records thereof. In case of a tie the President shall cast the deciding vote.

SEC. 10. Delegates shall file their credentials with the Secretary of the Association on blanks furnished by him for that purpose not later than ten days before the beginning of the annual meeting. The Secretary shall turn over such credentials

to the Credential Committee, when appointed, with such information thereon as may be obtained from the records of the Association. The Representative Assembly shall be the final judge of the qualifications of delegates. The delegates shall have equal rights and each shall have one vote. Meetings of the Representative Assembly shall be open to the active members of the Association who shall be privileged to address the Assembly on subjects pertaining to the Association. The Representative Assembly shall adopt rules of procedure which shall not conflict with the charter and by-laws of the Association. It shall recommend an equitable plan for paying the expenses of delegates to the annual business meeting of the Association.

Delegates;
Credentials;
Voting;
Freedom of
Floor

SEC. 11. The officers shall be permitted to hold meetings other than for business purposes and expenses therefor shall be provided.

ARTICLE III—DUTIES OF OFFICERS

SECTION 1. The President shall preside at all meetings of the Association, and shall perform the duties usually devolving upon the chief executive of such an association. In his absence, the ranking Vice-President who is present shall preside; and in the absence of all Vice-Presidents a chairman *pro tempore* shall be elected. The President shall prepare the program for the general sessions of the annual meeting of the Association, and, with the approval of the Executive Committee, shall determine the time and place of the general meeting of the Association and of the various departments not definitely fixed by these by-laws, and shall have the power to require such changes to be made in the programs of the Council and the departments as will promote the interest of the annual meeting. The President shall be a member *ex officio* of the Board of Trustees and Chairman of the Board of Directors and of the Executive Committee. He shall sign all bills approved for payment by the Board of Directors, and all bills approved or authorized by the Executive Committee between the meetings of the Board of Directors. On the expiration of his term of office as President, he shall become First Vice-President for the ensuing year, and shall be chairman *ex officio* of the Committee on Publication.

Duties of the
President

SEC. 2. The Secretary shall keep a full and accurate record of the proceedings of the general meetings of the Association and all meetings of the Board of Directors and of the Executive Committee, shall conduct the business of the Association as provided in the articles of incorporation and the by-laws, and, in all matters not definitely prescribed therein, shall be under the direction of the Executive Committee, and, in the absence of direction by the Executive Committee, shall be under the direction of the President, and shall receive or collect all moneys due the Association and pay the same each month to the Treasurer, shall countersign all bills approved for payment by the Board of Directors, or by the Executive Committee in the interval between the meetings of the Board of Directors, or on the approval of the President acting under authority of the Board of Directors, or Executive Committee. The Secretary shall have his records present at all meetings of the Association, of the Board of Directors, and of the Executive Committee. He shall keep a list of members and shall revise said list annually. He shall be Secretary of the Board of Directors, and a member of the Committee on Publication. He shall be the custodian of all the property of the Association not in charge of the Treasurer and the Board of Trustees. He shall give such bond for the faithful performance of his duties as may be required by the Board of Trustees. He shall submit his annual report to the Executive Committee not later than July 1 prior to the annual meeting of the Association, which report shall be transmitted to the

Duties of the
Secretary

Board of Directors at its annual meeting. At the expiration of his term of office, he shall transfer to his successor all money, books, and other property in his possession belonging to the Association. The Secretary shall not print, publish, nor distribute any official report or other document without the approval of the Publication Committee.

SEC. 3. The Treasurer shall receive from the Secretary and under the direction of the Board of Trustees shall hold in safekeeping all moneys paid to the Association; shall pay the same only upon the order of the Board of Trustees; shall notify the President of the Association and the Chairman of the Board of Trustees whenever the surplus funds in his possession exceed five hundred dollars; shall keep an exact account of his receipts and expenditures, with vouchers for the latter; and said accounts, ending on the thirty-first day of May of each year, he shall render to the Executive Committee not later than July 1, and when approved by said committee they shall be transmitted by the committee to the Board of Directors at the first regular meeting of the board held during the week of the annual meeting and to the Representative Assembly at the annual business meeting. The Treasurer shall give such bond for the faithful performance of his duties as may be required by the Board of Trustees. At the expiration of his term of office, he shall transfer to his successor all moneys, books, and other property in his possession belonging to the Association.

SEC. 4. The Board of Directors shall elect corresponding members as prescribed by Section 6 of Article I of these by-laws, shall elect members of the National Council of Education as provided in Section 3 of Article IV of these by-laws, shall have power to fill all vacancies in its own body and in the Board of Trustees; shall recommend to the Executive Committee the place for holding the annual meeting of the Association, the Council of Education, and the departments. The Board of Directors shall approve all bills incurred under authority of the Board of Directors, the Executive Committee, or the President and Secretary acting under the authority of the Board of Directors or Executive Committee, shall appropriate from the current funds of the year the amounts of money ordered by the Representative Assembly at the annual business meeting for the work of all special committees of research and investigation authorized and provided for at the annual business meetings, shall make a full report of the financial condition of the Association (including the reports of the Secretary, the Treasurer, and the Board of Trustees) to the Representative Assembly at the annual business meeting, and shall do all in its power to make the Association a useful and honorable institution.

SEC. 5. The Executive Committee shall assist the presiding officer in arranging for the time and place of the annual meeting of the Association, of the National Council of Education, and of the various departments.

The Executive Committee shall recommend to the Representative Assembly at the annual business meeting the appointment of special committees for investigation or research, the subjects for which may have been suggested by the National Council or by the active membership of the National Education Association or by any of its departments; it shall recommend the amount of money to be appropriated for such investigations. When such special committees are provided for and duly authorized by the Representative Assembly at the annual business meeting, the Executive Committee shall have general supervision of them, shall receive and consider all reports made by them, and shall print such reports and present the same, together with the reports received from the Secretary, the Treasurer, and the Board of Trustees and the recommendations of the Executive Com-

mittee thereon, to the Representative Assembly at the annual business meeting. All such special committees shall be appointed by the President of the National Education Association.

The Executive Committee shall fill all vacancies occurring in the body of officers of the Association except vacancies in the Board of Directors, Board of Trustees, and the office of Secretary.

SEC. 6. The Board of Trustees shall require of the Secretary and Treasurer bonds of such amount as may be determined by said board for the faithful performance of their duties, shall make a full report of the finances of the Association to the Executive Committee not later than July 1 prior to the annual meeting of the Association, which report shall be transmitted by the Executive Committee to the Board of Directors at the first regular meeting of the Board held during the week of the annual meeting of the Association. It shall choose annually its own Chairman and Secretary.

Further
Duties of
Trustees

ARTICLE IV—THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION

SECTION 1. The National Council of Education shall discuss educational questions of public and professional interest; propose to the Executive Committee, from time to time, suitable subjects for investigation and research; have a report made at its annual meeting on "Educational Progress During the Past Year"; and in other ways use its best efforts to further the objects of the Association and to promote the cause of education in general.

Function of
National
Council

SEC. 2. The National Council of Education shall consist of one hundred and twenty regular members, selected from the active membership of the National Education Association. Any active member of the Association is eligible to membership in the Council and each member shall be elected for six years and until his successor is elected. In addition to the 120 members thus selected from the active membership, the National Council may in its bylaws provide for the admission to membership of representatives from the several departments of the Association on the basis of equal representation from each department.

Membership
in Council

SEC. 3. The annual election of members of the Council shall be held at the time of the annual meeting of the Association. The Board of Directors of the Association shall annually elect ten members and the Council ten members, and each body shall fill all vacancies in its quota of members. No state, territory, nor district in the United States shall have at one time more than seven regular members in the Council.

Election of
Committee
Members

SEC. 4. The annual meeting of the Council shall be held during the week of the annual meeting of the Association.

Time of Meeting

SEC. 5. The absence of a regular member from two successive annual meetings of the Council shall be considered equivalent to his resignation of membership. Persons whose regular membership in the Council has expired shall be denominated honorary members of the Council during the time of their active membership in the Association with the privilege of attending the regular sessions of the Council and participating in its discussions. A member who discontinues or forfeits his active membership in the Association forfeits his membership in the Council.

Loss of
Membership

Council Officers SEC. 6. The officers of the Council shall consist of a President, a Vice-President, a Secretary, and such standing committees as may be prescribed by its by-laws, all of whom shall be regular members of the Council. The Secretary of the Council shall, in addition to performing the duties pertaining to his office, furnish the Secretary of the Association a copy of the proceedings of the Council for publication.

Bylaws and Powers of Council SEC. 7. The National Council of Education is hereby authorized to adopt by-laws for its government not inconsistent with the act of incorporation or the bylaws of the Association; *provided*, That such bylaws be submitted to and approved by, the Board of Directors of the Association before they shall become operative.

SEC. 8. The powers and duties of the Council may be changed or the Council abolished upon a two thirds vote of the Representative Assembly taken at the annual meeting of the Association; *provided*, That notice of the proposed action has been given at the preceding annual business meeting of the Association.

ARTICLE V—DEPARTMENTS

SECTION 1. The following departments are now (1926) in existence, to wit: The departments, first, of Adult Education; second, of American Association of Teachers Colleges; third, of Business Education; fourth, of Classroom Teachers; fifth, of Deans of Women; sixth, of Elementary School Principals; seventh, of Junior High School Principals; eighth, of Kindergarten Education; ninth, of Lip Reading; tenth, of Music Education; eleventh, of Rural Education; twelfth, of School Health and Physical Education; thirteenth, of Science Instruction; fourteenth, of Secondary School Principals; fifteenth, of Social Studies; sixteenth, of Superintendence; seventeenth, of Visual Instruction; eighteenth, of Vocational Education. There is also the National Council of Education.

Members of Departments SEC. 2. Each Department shall have the right to fix the qualifications of its members for the purpose of electing officers and transacting the other business of the department; *provided*, Active members of the Association, and no others, shall be eligible to such department membership, and provided also that all active members of the Association shall be permitted to attend the professional programs and discussions of any department.

SEC. 3. Each department shall hold its annual meeting at the time and place of the meeting of the Association, except as the Executive Committee may approve other arrangements.

Object of Department Meetings SEC. 4. The object of the meetings of the departments shall be the discussion of questions pertaining to their respective fields of educational work. The programs of these meetings shall be prepared by the respective Presidents in conference with, and under the general direction of, the President of the Association. Each department shall be limited to two sessions, with formal programs, unless otherwise ordered by the President of the Association, except that a third session of business or informal round-table conference may be held at the discretion of the department officers.

SEC. 5. The officers of each department shall consist of a President, a Vice-President, and a Secretary, who shall be elected at the last formal session of the

department to serve one year and until their successors are duly elected, and who shall, at the time of their election, be active members of the Association. In case there is a vacancy in the office of President of any of the departments, it shall be filled by an appointment made by the President of the Association. Any other departmental vacancy shall be filled by appointment made by the President of the department. Any department may provide for the creation of an executive committee and assign to it any duties consistent with the purposes of the department, and the charter and by-laws of the Association.

Officers of
Departments

SEC. 6. The Secretary of each department shall, in addition to performing the duties usually pertaining to his office, furnish the Secretary of the Association a copy of the proceedings of the meetings of the department for publication. *Provided*, No department shall establish an office outside of the general headquarters of the Association without the consent of the Executive Committee of the Association.

Department
Headquarters

SEC. 7. All departments shall have equal rights and privileges, with the exception stated in Section 3 of this article. They shall be named in Section 1 of this article in the order of their establishment and shall be dropped from the list when discontinued. Each department may be governed by its own regulations in so far as they are not inconsistent with the act of incorporation or these by-laws.

Rights of
Departments

SEC. 8. A new department may be established by a two thirds vote of the Board of Directors taken at a regular meeting of the Board, or by a two thirds vote of the Representative Assembly at any annual business meeting; *provided*, That a written application for said department, with title and purpose of the same, shall have been made at the regular meeting of the Board next preceding the one at which action is taken, or at the preceding annual business meeting, by at least *two hundred fifty* members engaged or interested in the field of labor in the interest of which the department is purposed to be established; *provided*, That *no group shall be admitted to departmental status until it shall have held constructive meetings for at least three successive years*. A department already established

How
Established

may be discontinued by the Board of Directors upon a two thirds vote taken at a regular meeting, or by a two thirds vote of the Representative Assembly at any business meeting of the Association; *provided*, That announcement has been made of the proposed action at a regular meeting of the board the preceding year, or at the preceding annual business meeting. A department shall be discontinued when it fails to hold a regular meeting for two successive years.

How
Discontinued

SEC. 9. Any department, by a two thirds vote of those voting at any regular business meeting, may levy a membership fee to supplement its allowance from the Association. Such membership fees shall be paid to the Secretary of the department who shall transmit them monthly to the Secretary of the Association. Such funds shall be added to the department's allowance from the Association and shall be used for the work of said department only, and shall be disbursed upon the recommendation of the executive officers of the department in the same manner as other funds of the Association are disbursed.

Fees for
Department
Members

ARTICLE VI—COMMITTEES

SECTION 1. At the regular meeting of the Board of Directors on the first day of the annual meeting, the president shall appoint an Auditing Committee consisting of three active members of the Association, no one of whom shall be either a trustee or a director; to this committee shall be referred the report of the expert accountant, together

Auditing
Committee

with the communication of the President transmitting the same, as provided in Section 6 of this article; and the committee shall report its findings at the meeting of the Representative Assembly.

SEC. 2. On the first day of the annual meeting of the Association, at such time and places as shall be designated on the annual program by the
Delegates meet President of the Association, the state and local delegates from
by States each state shall select one member for each of the following committees: Credentials, Resolutions, and Necrology. The Committee on Credentials shall receive the official list of the delegates from the Secretary and report thereon to the Representative Assembly.

SEC. 3. The Committee on Resolutions shall report at the annual business meeting of Representative Assembly, and except by unanimous consent, all resolutions shall be referred to said committee without discussion. This
Resolutions committee shall receive and consider all resolutions proposed by active members, or referred to it by the President; some time during the second day of the annual meeting of the Association the committee shall hold a meeting, at a place and time to be announced in the printed program, for the purpose of receiving proposed resolutions and hearing those who may wish to advocate them.

SEC. 4. The Committee on Necrology shall prepare for the
Necrology published *Proceedings* a list of the active and corresponding members that have died during the year accompanied by memorial sketches whenever practicable.

SEC. 5. Within thirty days prior to the time of the annual meeting of the Association, the President shall appoint a competent person, firm, or corporation licensed to do business as expert accountants; the accountants so appointed shall
Examination of examine the accounts, paper, and vouchers of the Secretary, the
Accounts Treasurer, and the Board of Trustees, and compare the same, and shall also examine the securities of the Permanent Fund held by the Board of Trustees. The report of said accountants shall be filed with the President before the opening day of the annual meeting of the Association, and shall be by him submitted with such comments as he may think proper, to the Board of Directors, at their meeting held on the first day of the annual meeting of the Association.

ARTICLE VII—MEETINGS

SECTION 1. A stated meeting of the Association, of the Council of Education, and of each department shall be held annually at such time and place as shall be determined by the Board of Directors or the Executive Committee acting for the Board in accordance with these by-laws.
Meetings to be An annual meeting of the Association and its subordinate bodies
Held Annually may be omitted for an extraordinary cause, upon the written consent of two thirds of the directors of the Association, obtained by the Executive Committee.

SEC. 2. The annual business meeting of the Representative Assembly shall begin on the second day of the annual meeting at 9.00 A. M. A regular meeting of the Board of Directors shall be held on the first day of the annual meeting at 10.30 A. M. The first regular meeting of the new Board of
Meetings of Directors shall be held as soon as practicable and within twenty-
Assembly four hours after the close of the last session of the annual
Directors, and meeting, the place and time of the meeting to be announced in
Trustees the printed program. The Board of Trustees shall hold its annual meeting at some convenient time and immediately fol-

lowing the meeting of the new Board of Directors referred to above in this section. Special meetings of the trustees may be called by the chairman, and shall be called on request of the majority of the Board of Trustees. Due notice of all meetings of the Board of Trustees shall be given to every member of the Board by the Secretary thereof.

ARTICLE VIII—PROCEEDINGS

SECTION 1. The proceedings of the Association, the Council, the departments, the commissions and committees, shall be published at the discretion of and under the direction of a committee appointed by the Executive Committee, *provided*, That in the opinion of the Executive Committee the funds of the Association warrant the publication. Each member of the Association shall be entitled to a copy of the *Proceedings*.

Publication of
Proceedings

SEC. 2. No paper, lecture, nor address shall be read before the Association or any of the departments in the absence of the author, without the approval of the President of the Association, or of the departments interested, nor shall any such paper, lecture, or address be published in the *Proceedings* without the approval of the Publication Committee.

Absence of
Author

ARTICLE IX—QUORUM

SECTION 1. Representatives from twenty-five States and territories shall constitute a quorum in all meetings of the Representative Assembly and of the Board of Directors.

Quorum

ARTICLE X—APPROPRIATIONS

SECTION 1. Unless otherwise ordered by the Representative Assembly at the annual business meetings, not less than 10 per cent of the gross income of the Association each year shall be set aside for such educational investigations and studies as may be ordered in accordance with Section 5 of Article III.

Limit on
Investigations

ARTICLE XI—AMENDMENTS

SECTION 1. These by-laws may be altered or amended at the annual meeting of the Representative Assembly by unanimous *vote*, or by a two thirds vote of the Representative Assembly if the alteration or amendment shall have been proposed in writing at the annual business meeting next preceding the one at which action is taken, and due announcement of the proposed action shall have been made in the official publication of the Association.

Amendments
to By-Laws

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

NOW KNOWN AS THE

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES

CERTIFICATE

of Acceptance of Charter and Adoption of By-Laws under the Act of Congress approved June 30, 1906.

We, the undersigned, Nathan C. Schaeffer, the presiding officer, and Irwin

Shepard, the Secretary of the meeting of the National Educational Association held at Los Angeles, California, on the 10th day of July, 1907, said meeting being the annual meeting of the Association held next after the passage of an act of Congress entitled "An Act to Incorporate the National Education Association of the United States,"

Do hereby certify, that at said meeting held pursuant to due notice, a quorum being present, the said Association adopted resolutions of which true copies are hereto attached, and accepted the charter of the National Education Association of the United States, granted by said act of Congress, and adopted by-laws as provided in said act and elected officers; and the undersigned pursuant to said resolutions,

Do hereby certify that the National Education Association of the United States has duly accepted said charter granted by said act of Congress, and adopted by-laws, and is the lawful successor to the National Educational Association.

In witness whereof, we have hereunto signed our names this 20th day of August, 1907.

NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER, *Presiding Officer*
IRWIN SHEPARD, *Secretary*

VERIFICATION

RESOLUTIONS ADOPTED BY THE ACTIVE MEMBERS, JULY 10, 1907

1. *Resolved*, That the National Educational Association hereby accepts the charter granted by an act of Congress entitled "An Act to Incorporate the National Education Association of the United States," passed June 30, 1906, and that the President and Secretary of this meeting be authorized and directed to execute and file with the Recorder of Deeds of the District of Columbia a verified certificate showing the acceptance by the Association of the charter granted by said act.

2. *Resolved*, That the proposed by-laws of which notice was given at the annual meeting of the Association held on July 6, 1905, which are printed in full in the Journal of said meeting, be and the same are hereby adopted to take effect immediately.

3. *Resolved*, That the Association adopt as its corporate seal a circle containing the title "National Education Association of the United States," and the dates "1857-1907."

4. *Resolved*, That the Association do now proceed to elect officers, and to organize under the charter granted by the act of Congress.

Filed in the office of the Recorder of Deeds of the District of Columbia, September 4, 1907.

CALENDAR OF MEETINGS

NATIONAL TEACHERS ASSOCIATION, 1857-1870

1857—PHILADELPHIA, PA. (Organized)	1860—BUFFALO, N. Y.
JAMES L. ENOS, Chairman.	J. W. BULKLEY, President.
W. E. SHELDON, Secretary.	Z. RICHARDS, Secretary.
1858—CINCINNATI, OHIO	O. C. WIGHT, Treasurer.
Z. RICHARDS, President.	1861, 1862—No session.
J. W. BULKLEY, Secretary.	1863—CHICAGO, ILL.
A. J. RICKOFF, Treasurer.	JOHN D. PHILBRICK, President.
1859—WASHINGTON, D. C.	JAMES CRUICKSHANK, Secretary.
A. J. RICKOFF, President.	O. C. WIGHT, Treasurer.
J. W. BULKLEY, Secretary.	
C. S. PENNELL, Treasurer.	

- 1864—OGDENSBURG, N. Y.
W. H. WELLS, President.
DAVID N. CAMP, Secretary.
Z. RICHARDS, Treasurer.
- 1865—HARRISBURG, PA.
S. S. GREENE, President.
W. E. SHELTON, Secretary.
Z. RICHARDS, Treasurer.
- 1866—INDIANAPOLIS, IND.
J. P. WICKERSHAM, President.
S. H. WHITE, Secretary.
S. P. BATES, Treasurer.
- 1867—No session.
- 1868—NASHVILLE, TENN.
J. M. GREGORY, President.
L. VAN BOKKELEN, Secretary.
JAMES CRICKSHANK, Treasurer.
- 1869—TRENTON, N. J.
L. VAN BOKKELEN, President.
W. E. CROSBY, Secretary.
A. L. BARBER, Treasurer.
- 1870—CLEVELAND, OHIO
DANIEL B. HAGAR, President.
A. P. MARBLE, Secretary.
W. E. CROSBY, Treasurer.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, 1871-1907

- 1871—ST. LOUIS, MO.
J. L. PICKARD, President.
W. E. CROSBY, Secretary.
JOHN HANCOCK, Treasurer.
- 1872—BOSTON, MASS.
E. E. WHITE, President.
S. H. WHITE, Secretary.
JOHN HANCOCK, Treasurer.
- 1873—ELMIRA, N. Y.
B. G. NORTHROP, President.
S. H. WHITE, Secretary.
JOHN HANCOCK, Treasurer.
- 1874—DETROIT, MICH.
S. H. WHITE, President.
A. P. MARBLE, Secretary.
JOHN HANCOCK, Treasurer.
- 1875—MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.
W. T. HARRIS, President.
M. R. ABBOTT, Secretary.
A. P. MARBLE, Treasurer.
- 1876—BALTIMORE, MD.
W. F. PHELPS, President.
W. D. HENKLE, Secretary.
A. P. MARBLE, Treasurer.
- 1877—LOUISVILLE, KY.
M. A. NEWELL, President.
W. D. HENKLE, Secretary.
J. ORMOND WILSON, Treasurer.
- 1878—No session.
- 1879—PHILADELPHIA, PA.
JOHN HANCOCK, President.
W. D. HENKLE, Secretary.
J. ORMOND WILSON, Treasurer.
- 1880—CHAUTAUQUA, N. Y.
J. ORMOND WILSON, President.
W. D. HENKLE, Secretary.
E. T. TAPPAN, Treasurer.
- 1881—ATLANTA, GA.
JAMES H. SMART, President.
W. D. HENKLE, Secretary.
E. T. TAPPAN, Treasurer.
- 1882—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
G. J. ORR, President.
W. E. SHELTON, Secretary.
H. S. TARBELL, Treasurer.
- 1883—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
E. T. TAPPAN, President.
W. E. SHELTON, Secretary.
N. A. CALKINS, Treasurer.
- 1884—MADISON, WIS.
THOMAS W. BICKNELL, President.
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 Shelton Phelps, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.
 C. A. Phillip, College of Education, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.
 J. A. Pittman, Principal, State Normal School, Salem, Mass.
 Sue Powers, Supt., Shelby County Schools, Memphis, Tenn.
 Charles Richardson, 748 Plymouth Bldg., Minneapolis, Minn.
 Grant Ruland, Supt. of Schools, Gunnison, Colo.
 George H. Shafer, Principal, State Normal School, Willamantic, Conn.
 Paul Stetson, Supt. City Schools, Dayton, Ohio.
 Grace G. Swan, Supervisor of Elementary Practice, Hancock School, Pittsburgh, Pa.
 May Trumper, State Supt. of Public Instruction, Helena, Mont.
 May Wade, Classroom Teacher, Emerson School, Berkeley, Calif.
 Ella Wintler, Classroom Teacher, Public Schools, Vancouver, Wash.
 Robert H. Wright, President, East Carolina Teachers College, Greenville, N. C.
 S. D. Shankland, Secretary, Dept. of Superintendence, N. E. A., 1201 16th St. N. W., Washington, D. C., Assigned Consulting Member.

TEACHING OF DEMOCRACY

(Authorized by the Representative Assembly)

- J. O. Engleman, Chairman, Supt. of Schools, Terre Haute, Ind.
 Walter S. Athearn, Dean, School of Religious Education and Social Service, 20 Beacon St., Boston, Mass.
 William C. Bagley, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.
 John H. Beveridge, Supt. of Schools, 601 City Hall, Omaha, Nebr.
 B. H. Bode, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.
 Grace Bridges, 331 Chamber of Commerce Bldg., Portland, Ore.
 Edwin C. Broome, Supt. of Schools, Philadelphia, Pa.
 Charles E. Chadsey, Dean, Dept. of Education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.
 Randall J. Condon, Supt. of Schools, Cincinnati, Ohio.
 J. M. Gwinn, Supt. of Schools, San Francisco, Calif.
 Katherine Hamilton, Asst. Supt. of Schools, 401 Court House, St. Paul, Minn.
 Howard C. Hill, School of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
 L. Thomas Hopkins, College of Education, University of Colorado, Boulder, Colo.
 W. H. Kilpatrick, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.
 Mary S. Ray, Principal, Bell School, Indianapolis, Ind.
 Ballard D. Remy, Principal, Forest Park School, Springfield, Mass.
 Wm. J. Sanders, 80 Chestnut Street, Haverhill, Mass.
 Frank E. Spaulding, Dean, Dept. of Education, Yale University, New Haven, Conn.
 Lida Lee Tall, Principal, Maryland State Normal School, Towson, Md.
 Mabel V. Wilson, President Seattle Grade Teachers Club, 317 Central Bldg., Seattle, Wash.
 Margaret Alltucker, Asst. Director of Research Division, N. E. A., 1201 16th St. N. W., Washington, D. C., Assigned Consulting Member.

COMMITTEE ON VISUAL EDUCATION

(Authorized by Representative Assembly)

- Thomas E. Finegan, Chairman, 613 North Front Street, Harrisburg, Pa.
 A. W. Abrams, Director, Visual Instruction Division, The University of the State of New York, Albany, N. Y.
 J. V. Ankeny, in Charge Visual Education, West Virginia University, Morgantown, W. Va.
 Arthur G. Balcom, Asst. Supt. of Schools, Newark, N. J.
 Elizabeth Breckenridge, Principal, Louisville Normal School, Louisville, Ky.
 Ernest L. Crandall, Director, Lectures and Visual Instruction, 500 Park Avenue, New York, N. Y.
 Susan M. Dorsey, Supt. of Schools, Los Angeles, Calif.
 David Gibbs, Supt. of Schools, Meriden, Conn.
 Elizabeth Hall, Asst. Supt. of Schools, Minneapolis, Minn.
 Dudley Grant Hays, President, National Academy of Visual Instruction, 460 South State Street, Chicago, Ill.
 M. C. Lefter, Supt. of Schools, Lincoln, Nebr.
 Mary B. McAndrew, President, Carbondale Teachers Ass'n, Carbondale, Pa.
 Carroll G. Pearce, 4315 Lisbon Avenue, Milwaukee, Wis.
 Edwin H. Reeder, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.
 James J. Walsh, Fordham University, New York, N. Y.
 Arthur C. Watkins, 1628 Columbia Road, Apt. 409, Washington, D. C.
 H. B. Wilson, Supt. of Schools, Berkeley, Calif.
 H. A. Allan, Business Manager, N. E. A., 1201 16th St. N. W., Washington, D. C., Assigned Consulting Member.

GENERAL PROGRAM—PHILADELPHIA MEETING

JUNE 27—JULY 3, 1926

General Theme—The Challenge of Childhood to the Teachers of America

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION—VESPER SERVICESunday
June 27
4:00 P.M.
Independence
SquareMusic by the Philadelphia Navy Yard Band—Max Karasyk, Band Leader.
Presiding Officer—Mary McSkimmon, President of the AssociationHYMN—O God, Beneath Thy Guiding Hand (Duke Street)
Director—George L. Lindsay, Director of Music, Philadelphia Public Schools**PRAYER**

Reverend W. Beatty Jennings, Pastor, First Presbyterian Church, Germantown, Philadelphia, Pa.

HYMN

America, the Beautiful

ADDRESS

William Mather Lewis, President, George Washington University, Washington, D. C.

HYMN

O God, Our Help in Ages Past

BENEDICTION

Right Reverend Monsignor Joseph Whitaker, Rector of Our Lady of Mercy Church, Philadelphia, Pa.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION—GENERAL SESSIONSunday
June 27
7:45 P.M.
Sesqui-centennial
Auditorium*Presiding Officer*—President of the Association**ORGAN RECITAL (7:45-8:15)***Organist*—Robert A. Gerson, Teacher of Music, Northeast High School, Philadelphia, Pa.**HYMN—America***Director*—George L. Lindsay, Director of Music, Philadelphia Public Schools**PRAYER**

Reverend Howard E. Hand, Pastor, Park Avenue M. E. Church, Philadelphia, Pa.

ADDRESS (Ten Minutes)

W. Freeland Kendrick, Mayor of Philadelphia

ADDRESS (Ten Minutes)

Francis B. Haas, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Pa.

ADDRESS (Ten Minutes)

William Rowen, President of Board of Education, Public Schools, Philadelphia, Pa.

ADDRESS (Ten Minutes)

Joseph R. Wilson, Director of Education and Social Economy, Sesqui-centennial Exhibition Association, Philadelphia, Pa.

THE ABUNDANT LIFE (Forty Minutes)

William M. Davidson, Superintendent of Schools, Pittsburgh, Pa.

First Day
Monday
June 28
9:00 A.M.
Academy
of Music

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION—GENERAL SESSION A

Presiding Officer—C. B. Glenn, Superintendent of Schools, Birmingham, Ala.

COMMUNITY SINGING

Director—George L. Lindsay, Director of Music, Philadelphia Public Schools.

Pianist—F. Edna Davis, Teacher of Music, William Penn High School, Philadelphia, Pa.

PRAYER

THE LAW'S PROTECTION OF CHILDHOOD (Forty Minutes)

Grace Abbott, Chief of the Children's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor, Washington, D. C.

LAST SUMMER'S ROUNDUP OF FIVE AND SIX YEAR OLD CHILDREN (Forty Minutes)

Mrs. A. H. Reeve, President, National Congress of Parents and Teachers, Ambler, Pa.

THE COST OF LEADERSHIP (Forty Minutes)

Cameron Beck, Personnel Director, New York Stock Exchange, New York City.

YALE FILM—Independence.

Monday
June 28
9:00 A.M.
Forrest
Theater

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION—GENERAL SESSION B

Presiding Officer—J. M. Gwinn, Superintendent of Schools, San Francisco, Calif.

COMMUNITY SINGING

Director—Walter Evans, Teacher of Music, Shaw Junior High School, Philadelphia, Pa.

Pianist—Louis Kazze, Teacher of Music, West Philadelphia High School for Boys, Philadelphia, Pa.

PRAYER

THE CHILD AND THE RURAL SCHOOL (Forty Minutes)

Florence M. Hale, State Agent for Rural Education, Augusta, Maine.

TRANSFORMING THE SCHOOL FOR THE RURAL CHILD (Forty Minutes)

Marie Turner Harvey, Division of Rural Education, State Teachers College, Kirksville, Mo.

FILM—CALIFORNIA THE GOLDEN

Monday
June 28
2:00 P.M.

DEPARTMENTS AND ALLIED ORGANIZATIONS

This afternoon will be given over to meetings of departments and allied organizations.

State delegations will meet at their respective state headquarters at 5 P.M. to elect one member to each of the following committees: Credentials, Resolutions, and Necrology.

Each state delegation will also nominate one person for member of the Board of Directors, to be reported to the Representative Assembly at the first Business Session on Tuesday morning on roll call of the states.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION—GENERAL SESSION

Monday
June 28
7:45 P.M.
Sesqui-
centennial
Auditorium

Presiding Officer—Jesse H. Newlon, Superintendent of Schools, Denver, Colo.

ORGAN RECITAL (7:45 to 8:15)

Organist—Herman Widmaier, Teacher of Music, Jones Junior High School, Philadelphia, Pa.

PRAYER

THE DECLARATION AND THE SCHOOL (Forty Minutes)

William McAndrew, Superintendent of Schools, Chicago, Ill.

EDUCATION AND THE WORLD'S CHILDREN (Forty Minutes)

John H. Finley, Editorial Department, *New York Times*, New York City.

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS—THE CHALLENGE OF CHILDHOOD (Forty Minutes)

Mary McSkimmon, Principal, Pierce School, Brookline, Mass.

Following the program there will be a general reception to all members of the Association and their friends in the Academy of Fine Arts. The Academy of Fine Arts is located on the west side of Broad Street, at Cherry Street, two blocks north of City Hall.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION—FIRST BUSINESS SESSION OF REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY

Second
Day
Tuesday
June 29
9:00 A.M.
Academy
of Music

Presiding Officer—President of the Association.

COMMUNITY SINGING AND STATE SONGS

Director—George H. Gartlan, Director of Music, New York City Public Schools.

Pianist—F. Edna Dayis, Teacher of Music, William Penn High School, Philadelphia, Pa.

PRAYER

KEYNOTE ADDRESS (Ten Minutes)

Edwin C. Broome, Superintendent of Schools, Philadelphia, Pa.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON CREDENTIALS

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON RULES

William B. Owen, President, Chicago Normal College, Chicago, Ill.;
Chairman of Committee on Rules and Official Parliamentarian.

ADOPTION OF ORDER OF BUSINESS

ADOPTION OF MINUTES OF INDIANAPOLIS MEETING

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON ELECTIONS

William J. Sanders, Haverhill, Mass.; Chairman of Committee on Elections.

RETIREMENT ALLOWANCES: REPORT AND DISCUSSION (Fifteen Minutes)

Leader—E. Ruth Pyrtle, Principal, McKinley School, Lincoln, Nebr.;
Chairman of the Committee of One Hundred on the Problem of Retirement Allowances.

HEALTH EDUCATION: REPORT AND DISCUSSION (Fifteen Minutes)

Leader—Thomas D. Wood, Teachers College, Columbia University,
New York City; Chairman of the Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION—FIRST BUSINESS SESSION OF REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY—Continued

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONSHIPS: REPORT AND DISCUSSION (Fifteen Minutes)

Leader—William F. Russell, International Institute, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City; Chairman of the Committee on International Relationships.

NOMINATIONS FROM FLOOR FOR PRESIDENT, VICE-PRESIDENT, AND TREASURER

ROLL CALL OF STATES FOR NOMINATIONS OF STATE DIRECTORS

ANNOUNCEMENTS

Resolutions for the consideration of the Committee on Resolutions may be handed to the Secretary, who will place them in the hands of the committee.

Tuesday
June 29
9:00 A.M.
Garrick
Theater

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION—GENERAL SES- SION A

Presiding Officer—Olive M. Jones, Principal, Public School No. 120, New York City

COMMUNITY SINGING

Director—Walter Evans, Teacher of Music, Shaw Junior High School, Philadelphia, Pa.

Pianist—Louis Kazze, Teacher of Music, West Philadelphia High School for Boys, Philadelphia, Pa.

PRAYER

RADIO AND THE CHILD (Forty Minutes)

W. E. Harkness, Vice-president, Broadcasting Company of America, New York City

NEWSPAPERS AND CHILDHOOD (Forty Minutes)

Julia M. Traver, School Editor, *Rochester Democrat and Chronicle*, Rochester, N. Y.

THE CHILD AND THE MOVING PICTURE (Forty Minutes)

William David Upshaw, United States Representative from Georgia, Atlanta, Ga.

YALE FILM—Independence

Tuesday
June 29
9:00 A.M.
Forrest
Theater

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION—GENERAL SES- SION B

Presiding Officer—Carroll G. Pearse, Milwaukee, Wis.

COMMUNITY SINGING

Director—Forrest R. Newmeyer, Teacher of Music, Frankford High School, Philadelphia, Pa.

Pianist—Harry P. Hoffmeister, Teacher of Music, West Philadelphia High School for Boys, Philadelphia, Pa.

PRAYER

BRINGING BIG OUTLOOKS OF SCIENCE TO THE CHILDREN (Forty Minutes)

David Dietz, Science Editor, *The Cleveland Press*, Cleveland, Ohio

THE CHILD AND THE NEW SOUTH (Forty Minutes)

Kate Wofford, Superintendent of Laurens County Schools, Laurens, S. C.

NEW ROADS TO CHILDHOOD (Forty Minutes)

Annie Carroll Moore, Supervisor of Work with Children, Public Library, New York City

FILM—CALIFORNIA THE GOLDEN

DEPARTMENTS AND ALLIED ORGANIZATIONS

Programs are arranged under the names of the various groups elsewhere in the Official Program.

Tuesday
June 29
2:00 P.M.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION—SYMPHONY CONCERT

PHILADELPHIA ORCHESTRA

Philadelphia, long recognized as an important musical center, is justly proud of its Orchestra. The Philadelphia Orchestra was founded in 1900. From its beginning, it commanded widespread attention, constantly growing in recognition under its successive conductors,—Fritz Scheel, Karl Pohlig, and Leopold Stokowski. Under Dr. Stokowski's magnetic leadership, the fame of the Philadelphia Orchestra has spread to every corner of the land and even to European musical centers. Dr. Stokowski has taken the Orchestra on tour to most of the large cities of the United States and contemplates a European tour in the summer of 1927.

The privilege of hearing this noted orchestra without special charge is made possible through the courtesy of teachers and citizens of Philadelphia.

Tuesday
June 29
8:00 P.M.
Sesqui-
centennial
Auditorium

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION—SECOND BUSINESS SESSION OF REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY

Presiding Officer—President of the Association.

COMMUNITY AND STATE SONGS

Director—Father William J. Finn, Director of Paulist Choristers, New York City

Pianist—F. Edna Davis, Teacher of Music, William Penn High School, Philadelphia, Pa.

Third
Day
Wednesday
June 30
9:00 A.M.
Academy of
Music

PRAYER

KEYNOTE ADDRESS (Ten Minutes)

Jessie Gray, Training Teacher, Philadelphia Normal School, Philadelphia, Pa.

TEACHING OF DEMOCRACY: REPORT AND DISCUSSION (Fifteen Minutes)

Leader—J. O. Engleman, Superintendent of Schools, Terre Haute, Ind.; Chairman of the Committee on the Teaching of Democracy.

CLASSROOM TEACHERS' PROBLEMS: REPORT AND DISCUSSION (Fifteen Minutes)

Leader—Anna E. Riddle, Teacher, Saint Joseph, Mo.; Chairman of the Committee of One Hundred on Classroom Teachers' Problems.

VISUAL EDUCATION: REPORT AND DISCUSSION (Fifteen Minutes)

Leader—Thomas E. Finegan, Harrisburg, Pa.; Chairman of Committee on Visual Education.

AMERICAN EDUCATION WEEK: REPORT AND DISCUSSION (Fifteen Minutes)

Leader—Thomas E. Johnson, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Lansing, Mich.; Chairman of Committee on American Education Week.

RURAL TEACHERS' PROBLEMS: REPORT AND DISCUSSION (Fifteen Minutes)

Leader—Harold W. Foght, President, Northern Normal and Industrial College, Aberdeen, S. D.; and Chairman of the Committee of One Hundred on Rural Teachers' Problems.

PROBLEM OF TENURE: REPORT AND DISCUSSION (Fifteen Minutes)

Leader—Frederick M. Hunter, Superintendent of Schools, Oakland, Calif.; Chairman of the Committee of One Hundred on the Problem of Tenure.

LEGISLATIVE COMMISSION: REPORT AND DISCUSSION (Fifteen Minutes)

Leader—George D. Strayer, Professor of Educational Administration, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City; Chairman of the Legislative Commission.

Wednesday June 30 9:00 A.M.
Garrrick Theater

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION—GENERAL SESSION A

Presiding Officer—John A. H. Keith, President, State Normal School, Indiana, Pa.

COMMUNITY SINGING

Director—Walter Evans, Teacher of Music, Shaw Junior High School, Philadelphia, Pa.

Pianist—Herman Widmaier, Teacher of Music, Jones Junior High School, Philadelphia, Pa.

PRAYER

TEACHING SERVICE THROUGH THE JUNIOR RED CROSS (Thirty Minutes)

Arthur W. Dunn, National Director, American Junior Red Cross, Washington, D. C.

UTILIZING CHILDREN'S SPECIAL GIFTS (Thirty Minutes)

Flora Drake, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Indianapolis, Ind.

LEGISLATION IN THE INTERESTS OF CHILDHOOD (Thirty Minutes)

Francis G. Blair, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Springfield, Ill.

TRAINING TEACHERS FOR THE NATION'S CHILDREN (Thirty Minutes)

Uel W. Lamkin, President, Northwest Missouri Teachers College, Maryville, Mo.

Wednesday June 30 9:00 A.M.
Forrest Theater

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION—GENERAL SESSION B

Presiding Officer—E. Ruth Pyrtle, Principal, McKinley School, Lincoln, Nebr.

COMMUNITY SINGING

Director—Harry P. Hoffmeister, Teacher of Music, West Philadelphia High School for Boys, Philadelphia, Pa.

Pianist—Louis Kazze, Teacher of Music, West Philadelphia High School for Boys, Philadelphia, Pa.

PRAYER

INDUSTRY'S INTEREST IN THE EDUCATION OF THE CHILD (Thirty Minutes)

R. L. Cooley, Director of Vocational Education, Public Schools, Milwaukee, Wis.

THE CHILD AND THE MILL (Thirty Minutes)

Katharine Dozier, Gainesville, Ga.

PREVENTING DELINQUENCY AMONG CHILDREN (Thirty Minutes)

William Healy, Director of the Judge Baker Foundation, Boston, Mass.

THE CHILD INSTEAD OF WAR AS A CENTER OF WORLD INTEREST (Thirty Minutes)

Augustus O. Thomas, State Commissioner of Education, Augusta, Me.; and President, World Federation of Education Associations

Wednesday June 30

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

This afternoon will be left free in order that those attending the convention may visit historic and literary shrines or view the exhibits at the Sesquicentennial. Trips by auto or airplane will give the visitor an excellent idea of the treasures Philadelphia holds in store.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION—GENERAL SESSION

Wednesday
June 30
7:45 P.M.
Sesqui-
centennial
Auditorium

Presiding Officer—Fred M. Hunter, Superintendent of Schools, Oakland, Calif.

ORGAN RECITAL (7:45 to 8:15)

Organist—Paul E. Duffield, Teacher of Music, Northeast High School, Philadelphia, Pa.

PRAYER

THE CHILDREN OF TODAY (Forty Minutes)

Angelo Patri, Principal, Public School 45, New York City

THE TRAGEDY OF MISUNDERSTOOD YOUTH (Forty Minutes)

Brooks Fletcher, United States Representative from Ohio, Marion, Ohio

THE FINAL TEST OF THE AMERICAN SCHOOL'S SUCCESS (Forty Minutes)

Randall J. Condon, Superintendent of Schools, Cincinnati, Ohio; and President, Department of Superintendence.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION—THIRD BUSINESS SESSION OF REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY

Fourth Day
Thursday
July 1
9:00 A.M.
Academy
of Music

Presiding Officer—President of the Association

COMMUNITY SINGING AND STATE SONGS

Director—Geoffrey O'Hara, Song Writer

Pianist—F. Edna Davis, Teacher of Music, William Penn High School, Philadelphia, Pa.

PRAYER

KEYNOTE ADDRESS (Ten Minutes)

J. A. C. Chandler, President, College of William and Mary, Williamsburg, Va.

STANDARDS, REQUIREMENTS, AND CREDITS FOR TEACHERS IN SERVICE: REPORT AND DISCUSSION (Fifteen Minutes)

Leader—Joseph Rosier, President, State Teachers College, Fairmont, W. Va.; Chairman of the Committee on Standards, Requirements, and Credits for Teachers in Service

EDUCATIONAL NOMENCLATURE: REPORT AND DISCUSSION (Fifteen Minutes)

Leader—John W. Withers, Dean, School of Education, New York University, New York City; Chairman of Committee on Educational Nomenclature

ETHICS OF THE PROFESSION: REPORT AND DISCUSSION (Fifteen Minutes)

Leader—Sarah T. Muir, Teacher, Lincoln High School, Lincoln, Nebr.; Chairman of Committee on Ethics of the Profession

EDITORIAL COUNCIL: REPORT AND DISCUSSION (Fifteen Minutes)

Leader—William C. Bagley, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City; Chairman of the Editorial Council

COMMUNITY RELATIONS: REPORT AND DISCUSSION (Fifteen Minutes)

Leader—George E. Carrothers, College of Education, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio; Chairman of Committee on Community Relations

BETTER COOPERATION BETWEEN SCHOOLS AND MUSEUMS: REPORT AND DISCUSSION (Fifteen Minutes)

Leader—Henry Turner Bailey, Director, Cleveland School of Art, Cleveland, Ohio; Chairman of the Committee on Better Cooperation Between Schools and Museums

HOMES FOR RETIRED TEACHERS: ALSO BEHAVIOR PROBLEM CHILDREN: REPORTS AND DISCUSSIONS (Twenty Minutes)

Leader—Olive M. Jones, Principal, Public School No. 120, New York City; Chairman of the Committee on Homes for Retired Teachers, and of the Committee on Behavior Problem Children.

Thursday
July 1
9:00 A.M.
Garrick
Theater

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION—GENERAL SESSION A

Presiding Officer—Thomas E. Finegan, Harrisburg, Pa.

COMMUNITY SINGING

Director—Harry P. Hoffmeister, Teacher of Music, West Philadelphia High School for Boys, Philadelphia, Pa.

Pianist—Louis Kazze, Teacher of Music, West Philadelphia High School for Boys, Philadelphia, Pa.

PRAYER

A STUDY OF THE PRESCHOOL AGE—*Illustrated* (Forty Minutes)

Bird T. Baldwin, Director of Iowa Child Welfare Research Station, State University of Iowa, Iowa City.

THE EDUCATION OF THE VOLUNTEER IN GIRL SCOUT ORGANIZATION (Forty Minutes)

Sarah Louise Arnold, President, Girl Scouts of America, Lincoln, Mass.

CHALLENGING EPOCHS IN THE LIFE OF THE CHILD (Forty Minutes)

Edwin D. Starbuck, Professor of Philosophy, State University of Iowa, Iowa City.

Thursday
July 1
9:00 A.M.
Forrest
Theater

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION—GENERAL SESSION B

Presiding Officer—Jessie M. Fink, Principal, Palmer School, Grand Rapids, Mich.

COMMUNITY SINGING

Director—Paul E. Duffield, Teacher of Music, Northeast High School, Philadelphia, Pa.

Pianist—Herman Widmaier, Teacher of Music, Jones Junior High School, Philadelphia, Pa.

PRAYER

THE CLASSROOM TEACHER AS A DISCOVERER OF THE SPECIAL NEEDS OF CHILDHOOD (Forty Minutes)

Julia E. Sullivan, President, Department of Classroom Teachers, Boston, Mass.

FITTING THE NEW ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TO THE CHILD (Forty Minutes)

James F. Hosc, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

THE SCHOOLS OF TOMORROW (Forty Minutes)

John J. Tigert, United States Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.

Thursday
July 1
2:00 P.M.

DEPARTMENTS AND ALLIED ORGANIZATIONS

Programs are arranged under the names of the various groups elsewhere in the Official Program.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION—GENERAL SESSION*Presiding Officer*—President of the Association.

ORGAN RECITAL (7:45 to 8:15)

Organist—Forrest R. Newmeyer, Teacher of Music, Frankford High School, Philadelphia, Pa.

PRAYER

I HEAR THE CHILDREN SINGING (Forty Minutes)

A. E. Winship, Editor, *Journal of Education*, Boston, Mass.

THE CHILD'S BIRTHRIGHT IN ART (Forty Minutes)

Henry Turner Bailey, Director, Cleveland School of Art, Cleveland, Ohio.

Thursday
July 1
7:45 P.M.
Sesqui-
centennial
Auditorium**NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION—FOURTH AND FIFTH DAY
NATIONAL BUSINESS SESSION OF REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY***Presiding Officer*—President of the Association

COMMUNITY SINGING

Director—Albert N. Hoxie, Philadelphia, Pa.*Pianist*—F. Edna Davis, Teacher of Music, William Penn High School, Philadelphia, Pa.

PRAYER

REPORT OF THE SECRETARY (Ten Minutes)

J. W. Crabtree, Secretary of the National Education Association, Washington, D. C.

REVISION OF DEPARTMENTS: REPORT AND DISCUSSION

Leader—Randall J. Condon, Superintendent of Schools, Cincinnati, Ohio;
Chairman of the Committee on the Revision of N. E. A. Departments

RESEARCH ADVISORY: REPORT AND DISCUSSION (Fifteen Minutes)

Leader—J. A. C. Chandler, President, College of William and Mary,
Williamsburg, Va.; Chairman of the Research Advisory Committee

REPORT OF THE TREASURER

Henry Lester Smith, Dean, School of Education, Indiana University,
Bloomington, Ind.; Treasurer of the National Education Association

REPORT OF THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES

Walter R. Siders, Superintendent of Schools, Pocatello, Idaho; Chair-
man of the Board of Trustees

COMMITTEES: REPORT AND DISCUSSION

Jesse H. Newlon, Superintendent of Schools, Denver, Colo.; Chairman
of the Committee on CommitteesREPORT OF THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE AND BOARD OF DIRECTORS, INCLUDING
REPORT OF THE BUDGET COMMITTEE

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON NECROLOGY, 1925-26

Ernest L. Crandall, Director of Lectures and Visual Education, Public
Schools, New York City; Chairman of Committee on Necrology

UNFINISHED BUSINESS

NEW BUSINESS

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS

REPORT OF ELECTION OF OFFICERS

Fifth Day
Friday
July 2
9:00 A.M.
Academy
of Music

MINUTES OF THE SIXTH REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY¹

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, June 27-July 2, 1926

First Business Session, Tuesday, June 29, 1926

The first business session of the Sixth Representative Assembly, meeting in connection with the Sixty-fourth Annual Convention of the National Education Association, was called to order by the President of the Association, *Mary McSkimmon*, principal of the Pierce School, Brookline, Massachusetts, on Tuesday morning, June 29, at 9:25 o'clock, in the Academy of Music, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. (Community singing and state songs under the direction of *George H. Garilan*, Director of Music, New York City Public Schools.)

At the request of *Miss McSkimmon*, the audience rose and repeated the Lord's Prayer.

A basket of flowers was presented to *Miss McSkimmon* by the Oregon delegation at this time.

In behalf of the Chamber of Commerce, of St. Joseph, Missouri, the presentation of a gavel was made by *Anna Riddle*, a classroom teacher in St. Joseph. *Miss Riddle* explained that the gavel was made of wood used by the first pony express, which was established in 1860.

Miss McSkimmon (in accepting the gavel): This beautiful gift will go with me not only as a memorial of that noble and gracious state, my host of a few months ago, but as a memory of this great assembly which has come together this morning to take such action as shall make the path plain and straight for the best educational progress in our country. I ask you, dear *Miss Riddle*, to convey to your Chamber of Commerce a sense of my deep gratitude and my heartfelt appreciation.

We are now to have a brief address by *Doctor Broome*, superintendent of the schools in this city. (*Dr. Broome* then delivered the keynote address for the day. It is published in the *Proceedings*.)

Miss McSkimmon: Before we continue with the rest of the program, we will have a little interlude for one of our states which has something to sing to us. Illinois. (The Illinois delegation marched on the stage, sang state songs, and extended greetings.)

Miss McSkimmon: We shall now listen to the Report of the Committee on Credentials by the chairman of the committee, *John E. Colburn*.

Mr. Colburn: Permit me to present the report of the committee as follows:

The Credentials Committee of the National Education Association met in regular session in the convention headquarters office of the Academy of Music at 8 p. m., June 28, 1926. It elected officers and appointed a subcommittee consisting of *Mary Elizabeth O'Connor*, Massachusetts; *Herbert C. Hauser*, Illinois; and *Mary Uley*, Oregon.

Inasmuch as no protests or questions were raised regarding the eligibility of any delegates, the subcommittee, after going over the records, recommended that all delegates whose credentials had been filed in the office of the Secretary be duly seated as the official delegates of the Representative Assembly now in session. It has been suggested that it might be of interest to the Assembly to know that out of a possible one thousand delegates, we have better than 90 percent present. I move the acceptance of this report. (The motion was seconded.)

Miss McSkimmon: You have heard the report as read. The motion for its acceptance has been seconded. Is there any discussion? (The motion was put and carried.)

¹ This is a brief statement of the business sessions of the Sixty-fourth Annual Meeting of the National Education Association as prepared by the Secretary. A complete copy of the notes taken by the official reporter is in the Secretary's office.

The illness of our friend, *William B. Owen*, makes it impossible for him to read his report on rules. Our Secretary, *Mr. Crabtree*, will make that report.

Mr. Crabtree: *Doctor Owen* advises the adoption of the report as printed on page 5 of the Official Manual. (Reading from Official Manual and explaining that these rules have been in force since the Boston meeting.) I move the adoption of these rules. (The motion was seconded.)

Miss McSkimmon: It is moved and seconded that we adopt the rules that have just been read. Is there any discussion? All those in favor will say "aye"; those opposed "no." It is a vote. We shall now turn to the adoption of Order of Business.

Mr. Newlon: I move that the Order of Business be adopted as printed in the Official Manual. (After a second to the motion, it was put and carried.)

Miss McSkimmon: We shall now bring to your attention the minutes of the Indianapolis meeting.

Mr. Crabtree: The minutes of the Indianapolis meeting are printed in the Official Manual on pages 46, 47, and so forth. You have all had a chance to read these minutes, and I take it for granted that you have done so, and therefore move to adopt the minutes as printed in the Manual. (Seconded.)

Miss McSkimmon: It has been moved and seconded that we adopt the minutes of the Indianapolis meeting as printed in the Manual. Is there any discussion? All those in favor will say "aye"; those opposed, "no." It is a vote.

We shall next listen to the Report of the Committee on Elections which will be given by the chairman, *William J. Sanders*, of Haverhill, Massachusetts.

Mr. Sanders: Madam chairman, fellow teachers. At a meeting of the Committee on Elections yesterday, the following outline of procedure was unanimously adopted. The annual election will be held on Thursday, July 1. The polls will be open from 8 o'clock in the morning until 6 o'clock in the evening. The election will be held in the southern end of the foyer, of the Academy of Music. Appropriate signs will indicate the voting places. Boy Scouts will be on hand to direct voters to the proper places. The ballot will be simple and will carry adequate instructions for marking—simply the placing of a cross at the right of the candidate for which you want to vote. It will be necessary for the delegate to present to the inspector in charge his credential card, entitling him to a seat in this Assembly. All delegates make note of this and do not forget the credential card. Only delegates may vote. No provision has been made for absent voting. The representatives of the teachers of the nation will have an opportunity on Thursday to set an example for the other citizens of the nation by casting a one hundred percent vote. The Committee on Elections requests that you vote early. Madam chairman: I move the adoption of this method of procedure. (Motion seconded.)

Miss McSkimmon: You have heard the motion to adopt the Report of the Committee on Elections. Is there any discussion? Are you ready for the question? All those in favor will say "aye"; those opposed, "no." It is accepted.

Next on the program as printed is the presentation of the Retirement Committee Report. Inasmuch, however, as it is necessary for that committee to have a meeting to discuss among themselves their printed report before presenting it here, we are postponing the presenting of the Retirement Report until Thursday morning.

Our next item of business is the report and discussion of Health Education. *Doctor Wood* is not present with us this morning. I await any motion.

Mr. Newlon: Madam president, it is my understanding that *Doctor Wood's* committee is presenting a printed report. I move that the Representative Assembly accept the report as printed and that we refer to the consideration of the Executive Committee any recommendations that are made relative to the continuance of the work of that committee. My reason for doing so is because this involves a budget problem as, of course, the work of committees necessitates such expenditures, and that problem is being worked on this week.

Miss McSkimmon: You have heard the motion made by Mr. Newlon. Is that motion seconded? (There was a second to the motion.) Is there any discussion? (The motion was put and carried.)

We shall now have the report on international relationships. The chairman of the committee, *William F. Russell*, will present the report.

Dr. Russell: The report of the Committee on International Relationships consists of an account of the activities of your delegation at the meeting of the World Federation of Education Associations held in Edinburgh last summer, and some recommendations as to future policy. (He then read the report which is printed in the *Proceedings*.) If it is not improper, I move the adoption of this report. (The motion was seconded and carried.)

Miss McSkimmon: We shall now proceed to the next order of business on the program, the nomination of officers, and I am calling on Mr. Newlon, the vice-president, to call the roll of the states, and to conduct this part of the program. We shall follow the rules of last year, which was the first year of the election under the new bylaws. We shall hold to the time limit of two minutes for nominating speeches. I find that to be the printed rule, *Mr. Newlon*.

Mr. Newlon: It is my duty, as requested by *President McSkimmon* and *Secretary Crabtree*, to read the roll of states. As I call the roll of states, each state will place in nomination any candidate it wishes to present for the office of president, or for the office of vicepresident (eleven vicepresidents to be chosen), for the office of treasurer, and each state will also place a nomination for state director. *Secretary Crabtree* requests that these names be written out and signed by the chairman of the delegation and sent up to the platform so that we may have an official record of the nominations and not be entirely dependent on the nominations from the floor. I shall now read the list of states which you will find on page 5 of the Official Program.

Alabama—Alabama Delegate: For the nomination of president, the Alabama delegation gives way to Illinois.

W. P. Morgan, of Macomb, Illinois: Madam chairman, delegates from Alabama, members of the National Education Association. It is a great pleasure, I assure you, for the teachers of Illinois to be represented here. The teachers of Illinois have not always been a unit on national and state education problems, but on the question which confronts us at this hour, they are a unit. The classroom teacher, the supervisor, the superintendent, the principal, the high school teachers, the normal school teachers, college teachers, teachers who are Democrats, teachers who are Republicans, teachers who are Progressives, yea, teachers who are members of the Federation, and teachers who are not members of the Federation are a unit in believing that there is one outstanding man in Illinois who ought to be president of this wonderful organization. The teachers of Illinois have the honor of presenting for your consideration for the greatest position in this Association the name of our own superintendent, *Francis G. Blair*. (He then called attention to *Doctor Blair's* outstanding record and made a plea for his election. He read a letter concerning *Doctor Blair's* record from expresident Owen prevented from attendance because of sickness.)

When *Arkansas* was called the chairman of the delegation stated that *Arkansas* gave way to *Missouri* and *Miss Toomey* stepped forward.

Grace Toomey: Madam chairman, and delegates of this Assembly, *Missouri* wishes to thank *Arkansas* for its courtesy. In the absence of the President of the Missouri State Teachers Association, they thought it best for the first vicepresident to speak to you this morning on our nominee for the National Education Association. I represent the elementary teachers of Missouri and I think probably the first vicepresident of the State Teachers Association of the elementary group.

Missouri does not want a monopoly of time for this presentation and neither have we the desire along the line of monopoly of presidents for the National Education Association. Missouri has a man whose temperament, training, and

experience splendidly qualify him for the position of president of this wonderful National Education Association. (After calling attention to her candidate's successful career and to his qualities of leadership she said:) *Missouri* feels that it has a man who can *show you* how things ought to be done, and he can show you how to do them! Madam chairman, *Missouri* places in nomination, therefore, for president of the National Education Association, *Uel W. Lamkin*.

For a list of State Directors as nominated by the various states and elected, see list of officers elsewhere in the *Proceedings*.

Nominations for vicepresidents were made as follows:

Arizona nominated A. J. Matthews, President, State Teachers College, Tempe.

Arkansas nominated Sue Powers, County Superintendent of Schools of Shelby.

California nominated Claude W. Sandifur of Los Angeles.

District of Columbia nominated Selden M. Ely.

Maine nominated Florence Hale.

Michigan nominated Mrs. Jessie M. Fink of Grand Rapids.

Minnesota nominated Helen Shove.

Montana nominated May Trumper.

New Jersey nominated Ira T. Chapman, Superintendent of Schools, Elizabeth.

Oklahoma nominated P. P. Claxton.

Oregon nominated Mary Ulen.

South Dakota nominated H. W. Foght.

Virginia nominated Joseph H. Saunders.

Washington seconded nomination of Sandifur of California.

Indiana nominated Henry Lester Smith for treasurer.

Miss McSkimmon: We are in possession of the names that have been given for directors of states. May I ask you to present to the Secretary every name that has been given this morning for vicepresident. We are not sure that we have all of those names. At this time I wish to ask *Mr. Sanders*, as chairman of the Committee on Elections, and his committee to take charge of the election and to serve as tellers on that occasion. (The motion was made and seconded to authorize the Secretary to cast a unanimous ballot for all those candidates where there was no opposition, namely for treasurer and state directors.)

Miss McSkimmon: Outside in the registration office of this building, the chairman of the Legislative Commission wishes a meeting of his committee immediately upon the dispersal of this meeting. Is there any other announcement any one wishes to make at this time? (There was none.)

There will be a meeting of the Committee on International Relationship tomorrow at the Hollingsworth school, at two o'clock. Is there a motion for adjournment? (A motion was made, seconded, and carried.) This meeting stands adjourned.

Second Business Session, Wednesday, June 30, 1925

The meeting was called to order by *Mary McSkimmon*, President of the National Education Association, in the Academy of Music at 9 A. M. (Community and state songs; *Father William J. Finn*, Director.) (After the music the convention rose and repeated the Lord's Prayer.)

Miss McSkimmon: It is a very great pleasure and real joy to present to you at this time *Jessie Gray* of Philadelphia, who will give the keynote address of today's meeting. (*Miss Gray* delivered the address which is printed in the *Proceedings*.)

Miss McSkimmon: We are going to pause a moment and find out what became of New Jersey this morning. (Singing and music by the Fourteenth Infantry Band and stunts by the New Jersey delegation.)

Miss McSkimmon: Having been refreshed by the music from New Jersey, we are ready to go on with our program. I wish to call first this morning for the

report on American Education Week because the leader, *Thomas E. Johnson*, is obliged to take an early train. (Mr. Johnson gave the report in detail. It is published in *THE JOURNAL* and *Proceedings*.) *Mr. Johnson*: I move the adoption of this report. (The motion was seconded.)

Miss McSkimmon: You have heard the report and you have heard the motion for its acceptance. Is there any discussion? (The motion was put and carried.)

We will now listen to the report on Rural Teachers Problems by the chairman of the committee, *Harold W. Foght* of South Dakota.

Mr. Foght: (He then gave a complete report which is printed in the *Proceedings*.)

Madam President, I wish to move the adoption of the committee report. (The motion was seconded.)

Miss McSkimmon: You have heard the motion for the adoption of the committee report. It has been seconded. Is there any discussion on this report? (There is none. The motion was put, carried, and adopted.)

Miss McSkimmon: Let us now listen to the report on Classroom Teachers Problems by *Anna E. Riddle* of St. Joseph, Missouri, chairman of the committee.

Miss Riddle: (Presented report and asked that it be printed in the *Proceedings*.) I move the adoption of the report. (The motion was seconded.)

Miss McSkimmon: You have heard the recommendation of this committee as expressed by its chairman. Is there any discussion of the report? (After the discussion the motion was put and carried and the report was adopted.)

Let us now listen to the report of the Committee on Visual Education by its chairman, *Thomas E. Finegan* of Harrisburg, Pennsylvania.

Dr. Finegan: You have all received a copy of this report and I shall not take time to read it. (He mentioned two or three important items in the report.) I move the adoption of the report and that the Association express its appreciation to *Mr. Eastman* and offer its cooperation in his enterprise in this field. (The motion was seconded, put, and carried.)

Miss McSkimmon: The next item of interest for us today is the report and discussion of the problem of tenure by the chairman of the committee, *Fred M. Hunter* of California.

(*Mr. Hunter* then gave the report and conducted the discussion in which a number of members participated, including *Miss Hardin* of Chicago, *Mr. Rosier* of West Virginia, *Miss Peterson* of Ohio, *Miss Adair* of Virginia, *Mr. Glennie* of New Jersey, *Mr. Clifton* of California, and *Mrs. Hughes* of California.)

Mr. Hunter: I move the adoption of this report and the continuance of the committee of One Hundred on the Teacher Tenure Problem. (The motion was seconded, put, and carried, and the report adopted.)

Miss McSkimmon: The next and last section of our program this morning is the report of the Legislative Commission which will be presented by *George D. Strayer*, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, chairman of the commission.

Dr. Strayer: (The report was presented and *Dr. Strayer* conducted the discussion in which many members participated, among them *Mary C. C. Bradford* of Colorado, *Mr. Potter* of Vermont, *Mr. Wannamaker* of South Carolina, *Miss Blanton* of Texas, *Guy M. Wilson* of Massachusetts, *Miss Williams* of Washington, D. C., and *Miss Wofford* of South Carolina.) *Madam President*, I move that the report of the committee be adopted and the Legislative Commission continued.

Miss McSkimmon: You have heard the recommendation. Is it seconded? It is seconded. Let us vote on its adoption. It is a unanimous vote.

Mr. Wannamaker: *Madam President*, pardon me, I do not want to be misunderstood. I voted "no" on that proposition, and I just wanted to be sure my vote was recorded that way.

Miss McSkimmon: I did not hear your vote. It will be counted on the negative.

S. L. Smith of Tennessee: I move a rising vote of thanks to *Dr. Strayer* and *Miss Williams* for the excellent work they have done. (The motion was seconded.)

Miss McSkimmon: I will put the motion in a few moments. I wish to say to you that the people who have sat with me this morning, good judges of well-behaved organizations, say that this is the most magnificent group of attentive people they have ever seen. That belongs to you. I want to thank every one of you for the pains you have taken in this beautiful and gracious room to make your statements so crystal clear that they have been a joy to everyone of us.

Mr. Wannamaker: (After an explanation of the attitude of the South Carolina delegation on the Bill, Mr. Wannamaker secured the floor.) Madam President, I do not know of any organization in the United States that is working harder for the Education Bill than the South Carolina Teachers Association, and it is extremely embarrassing to me to come here and be placed in the position that I am now placed.

Miss McSkimmon: It will be possible for you to take back your vote.

Mr. Wannamaker: I simply wanted to have myself in a consistent position. I favor the continuance of the committee and wish to approve of its work. I therefore wish to change my vote from "no" to "aye" and to make it unanimous.

Mrs. McSkimmon: The change has been made and the vote is unanimous.

Mr. Smith of Tennessee: Madam President, I call for a vote on the motion to thank Dr. Strayer and Miss Williams for their splendid work.

Miss McSkimmon: Yes; we are ready to put that motion. All those in favor of the motion are requested to stand. The convention stood and the meeting was declared adjourned.

Third Business Session, Thursday, July, 1, 1926

The meeting was called to order by *Mary McSkimmon*, President of the National Education Association, in Academy of Music, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, Thursday, July 1, 1926, 9:00 A. M. Community singing, state songs, and state stunts. *Director Geoffrey O'Hara* in charge of music.)

Miss McSkimmon: It is a great omen for the spirit of the schools of America where the teachers and leaders of education can learn how to play with the same efficiency that they know how to work. We are greatly indebted to the states who have entertained us so well. Will you stand and repeat together the Lord's Prayer? (The convention rose and repeated the Lord's Prayer.)

Let it be said of the sixty-fourth meeting of our Association that an example has been set to the voting people of the entire country by that splendid use of the ballot as shown in this election. I call upon everyone here to use the ballot today. The polls are open today till six o'clock. Instructions are on your delegate cards. Please have the card exchanged in the foyer of this building where the voting takes place.

It is no credit to either candidate to win by less than half of the vote of the entire delegate assembly. Let us cast a 100 percent vote.

It is a great happiness this morning to introduce *Dr. Chandler* of Virginia, President of William and Mary College, who will deliver the keynote address for the day. (*Dr. Chandler* responded with an excellent address which is printed in the *Proceedings*.)

The first report to be considered today is a report on Standards, Requirements, and Credits for Teachers in Service. The leader is *President Rosier* of the State Teachers College, Fairmont, West Virginia, chairman of the committee. We will now listen to *Mr. Rosier's* report.

Mr. Rosier: (Reads the report and afterwards conducts the discussion in which the following are among those who participated, *Henry Turner Bailey* of Ohio, *Mr. Wenten* of Maine, *Miss Davis* of California, and *Mrs. Jones* of California.) I move that this report be accepted and that the Executive Committee be instructed to do whatever it thinks best about the committee and its work.

A Member: Madam President, in seconding the motion of the chairman of the committee I would like to inquire if his recommendation carries that proposal that the Bureau of Education take up this question of reciprocity between states?

Miss McSkimmon: It is a part of the report. The motion has been seconded. We are now ready to vote on the adoption of the report. (The vote was taken.) The motion is carried.

Next on the program is the subject of the ethics of the profession by *Sarah T. Muir*, Lincoln, Nebraska, chairman of the committee.

Miss Muir: (Read the report and asked that it be printed in the *Proceedings*.) I move the acceptance of this report, and in view of the incomplete work of the committee, I move that it be continued. (The motion was seconded, put, and carried.)

Miss McSkimmon: We will now listen to the report of the Editorial Council to be made by *William C. Bagley*, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, who is chairman of the council.

Dr. Bagley: (Read report.) I move the report be accepted and printed in the *Proceedings*. (The motion was seconded, put, and carried.)

Miss McSkimmon: We will next listen to the report on Community Relations, and in the absence of *Dr. Carrothers*, chairman of the committee, *David B. Corson* will make the report.

Dr. Corson: (He read the report as prepared by the chairman, *Mr Carrothers*.) I pause in presenting this report, Madam President, to move the adoption of the resolutions contained in it.

Miss McSkimmon: You have heard the motion to adopt these resolutions. It is seconded. (The motion was put and carried.)

Our next report is that on Better Cooperation Between the Schools and Museums by *Henry Turner Bailey*. We are honored by having him present this report. (He presented a carefully prepared report and one full of interest to the convention. His report will be printed in full in the *Proceedings*.) A motion was passed expressing approval of the report and its recommendations.

Miss McSkimmon: It has been a magnificent exhibition of the control and dignity of our great organization when the gavel that I was hoping to use so freely has not been taken out of its box except to show you its silent usefulness in an organization like this.

We are now to have a report of the Committee on Behavior Problem Children by *Olive Jones*, New York City, chairman.

Miss Jones: (Read the report and answered questions.) I move the adoption of the report. (The motion was seconded, put, and carried.)

Miss McSkimmon: We shall next have a report of the Committee on Homes for Retired Teachers, which will also be given by *Olive M. Jones*, of New York City, chairman.

Miss Jones: (After having given the report, many questions were answered.) I move that this organization, or this plan of organization, as contained in the report be submitted to the Executive Committee with the approval of the Representative Assembly, and also ask the authorization of this Assembly to proceed with the collection of funds. (The motion was seconded, put, and carried.)

Miss McSkimmon: This is the close of another excellent session. The meeting is adjourned.

Fourth and Final Business Session, Friday, July 2, 1926

The meeting was called to order by *Mary McSkimmon*, President of the National Education Association, in the Academy of Music, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, Friday, July 2, 1926, at 9:00 o'clock A. M. (Community singing. There were state demonstrations.)

Miss McSkimmon: The audience will please stand and all repeat the Lord's Prayer. Now we are ready for the program.

I am sure I am voicing the desire of every one in this audience when I express your and my most grateful thanks to this part of the Junior League Orchestra which

has rendered us such beautiful music this morning, to *Miss Davis* at the piano, to *Mr. Hoxie* and to *Mr. O'Hara* for their splendid service in warming our hearts with song this morning.

(At this point a little child named *Zadi*, a Near East Relief orphan, came to the stage and asked to say a few words.)

Miss McSkimmon: We are pleased, my little friend, to give you the platform.

Zadi: Miss President and members of this Association, for many years you teachers and the children in your schools have helped to feed and train children in the Near East Relief. Now they want to do something for you. Because I am one of the orphans they have asked me to present to you this rug. Will you kindly accept it in the name of the children of the Near East Relief?

Miss McSkimmon: This beautiful rug that the little children have made in the Near East, with their own little fingers, tying these countless knots, is not a gift to me as an individual but only because I happen to be a recipient for you. This beautiful rug is to hang in your headquarters at Washington, in the front hall under the clock, where everyone who comes may enjoy its beauty and have his heart kindled with the knowledge of the faithful gratitude of these little children so far away. So I accept it *Zadi*, not for myself but for all these good people and thousands more that these people stand for.

(*Zadi sang America.*)

I am sure you are all deeply grateful for this reminder that comes to us year after year of the gratitude and appreciation of those helpless little ones so far away who are helped by your bounty, by your care, by your thoughtfulness.

At this time we are to listen to the report of those great names that have passed from our ken during this year, and to whose memory we must give a moment's attention. Let us listen to the report of the committee on necrology by the chairman of the committee, *Ernest L. Crandall*, of New York.

(After giving the report which is found in the *Proceedings*, *Mr. Crandall* requested the audience to rise and stand for a moment in silent tribute and sing *Nearer My God to Thee.*)

In concluding this brief memorial exercise we will listen to a solo, *There is no Death*, composed by *Geoffrey O'Hara*, words by *Gordon Johnson*. The solo was sung by *Royal P. McMillan* with the composer himself, *Geoffrey O'Hara*, at the piano.)

Miss McSkimmon: Proceeding to the immediate business of the morning let us listen first to the report of the committee on the Teacher Retirement Problem by *E. Ruth Pyrtle*, Lincoln, Nebraska, chairman of the committee. (*Miss Pyrtle* then presented in a few chosen words the report which is printed in the *Proceedings.*)

Miss Pyrtle: I move the adoption of the report. In closing I offer the following motions:

1. That the printed report now in the hands of the Representative Assembly be adopted.
2. That the Executive Committee be authorized to take steps to put into effect a retirement plan for the headquarters staff, which investigation indicates to be most desirable.
3. That the Committee of One Hundred on the Problem of Retirement Allowances be authorized to continue its work, and
4. That this committee, in cooperation with the Research Division, be authorized to continue the service and aid now being given to those interested in the enactment of sound teacher retirement legislation.

Miss McSkimmon: Is there any discussion of these recommendations? If there is no discussion, we can vote on each resolution separately. I hear no request for that. We shall therefore vote on the motion to adopt the four resolutions. (The motion was seconded, put, and carried.)

Our next item of business this morning is to listen to a report of *Mr. Smith* of

Tennessee, who is chairman of a committee appointed to consider colored teachers problems. He will submit recommendations.

Mr. Smith: We, your Special Committee on Educational Problems in Colored Schools, beg leave to report as follows:

1. We recommend that the National Education Association create a Committee of Ten on Problems in Negro Education, this committee to include at least three state superintendents of education chosen from different sections of the country, at least two or three women, and three or four negro educators.

2. That the president of the National Education Association be instructed to send a message of greeting and goodwill to the National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools expressing a desire to cooperate with their organization in furthering their educational plan. The next meeting of the National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools is held in Hot Springs, Arkansas, July 28-30, 1926.

This report is signed by S. L. Smith, chairman; W. T. B. Williams, William W. Sanders, N. C. Newbold.

I may explain that the Board of Directors, by unanimous vote, expressed approval and recommended that the resolution be passed by the Representative Assembly. I therefore move the adoption of the report. (The motion was seconded.)

Miss McSkimmon: The motion has been seconded that this report be adopted. Are you ready for the question? (The motion was put and carried.) It is a vote.

Miss McSkimmon made a few announcements.

Mr. Smith is also requested to present the report of the Board of Directors on recommendations made in the Secretary's report.

The following is the report which was presented to the Board of Directors and which was approved by that body.

To the Board of Directors of the National Education Association: Your committee, appointed to consider the recommendations of *Secretary Crabtree* in relation to the nomination of the State National Education Association Director, and to the question of changing the present varying ratio followed in the election of state and local delegates to the Representative Assembly of the National Education Association would recommend, first,

That such change in the bylaws be made as will permit the state director for the National Education Association to be placed in nomination by the state representative assembly in states having such a body and in the state teachers associations in such a manner as they may determine, and second,

That in the matter of the apportionment of delegates to the Representative Assembly of the National Education Association, because of the conflicting interests involved, no proposal could at this time be agreed upon for immediate action even of temporary character and your committee, therefore, recommends that this problem, together with the entire subject of representatives, election, apportionment, and affiliation fees of delegates, be made the basis of an intensive study by a committee of from seven to fifteen representatives from the groups involved, to be appointed by the president of the Association, to report a definite plan at the meeting of the National Education Association to be held a year hence, and third,

That the report of the committee on coinclusive membership be printed and distributed for study and referred to this committee for a report a year hence. This report was signed by the following special committee: S. L. Smith, chairman; Cornelia Adair, R. J. Kiefer, Fred M. Hunter, Olive M. Jones.

A motion was passed by the Board of Directors by unanimous vote to approve the report and to recommend its adoption by the Representative Assembly. The Board of Directors appointed him to present these resolutions. I therefore, in behalf of the Board of Directors, move the adoption of this report. (The motion was seconded.)

Miss McSkimmon: It will be noticed that if this report is adopted it gives the approval of the Association to the nomination of the state National Education Association Director into the hands of the state education associations. It will also mean that a special committee will be appointed for an extensive study of the question of equalizing the basis for delegate representation between local and state associations, to give attention to the matter of affiliation fees and to the matter of coinclusive membership. Are you ready for the question? (The question was called for. The motion was carried.) It is a vote. The appointment of this committee will be in the hands of the new president.

We are now ready to listen to the report of *Randall J. Condon* on the Revision of Departments. Dr. Condon is chairman of the committee which has given particular attention to this question during the past year.

Dr. Condon. (He explained the work of the committee and the difficulties which it encountered and called attention to the principles guiding the committee in formulating its report.) The following is the report as prepared by the committee which I submit for your consideration:

At the meeting of the Assembly a year ago the chairman of the then existing committee submitted a report and recommended that the committee be dismissed. At Indianapolis you approved that recommendation. I come before you today as the chairman of a reorganized committee reporting progress and asking that it be continued. That is the only action that I am asking this Assembly to take. For your information, however, I would report that the committee has had under consideration during the past year several matters of importance dealing with the subject of the organization and reorganization of the departments of the National Education Association.

First, a recommendation came from the primary council and from the department of kindergarten teachers of the Association, asking that the two departments be combined under the term "Kindergarten-Primary." We considered and approved that recommendation and submitted it to the Board of Directors for their consideration with our recommendation that it be approved.

We have also received petitions during the year for the organization of departments in higher education, in art, and in nature education. In ordinary procedure the bylaws provide that three meetings on three successive years shall be held by any group of people desiring the organization of a department; that a petition for the organization of such a department shall be signed by at least 300 members of the Association, and then that if the attendance at these conferences has been satisfactory they may be recommended for organization into a separate department.

The conference on lip reading has met these conditions and we have considered their request and petition and have recommended to the Board of Directors that a department in lip reading should be organized. It is a somewhat limited department, but it deals with a very important problem of education, and the people making up this conference are very much in earnest and we felt justified in recommending that even this small special department should be recognized.

We have considered the organization of a department of junior high school principals and have recommended to the Board of Directors that such a department be organized. There are departments which deal with the administrative side, with large interests that are nation-wide in their appeal and organization; there are other departments and activities that are somewhat limited in their scope and in their appeal.

Among the departments of administration might be included the elementary school principals, junior high school principals, secondary principals, superintendents, teachers in colleges, and deans of women.

Under the departments of instruction might be included kindergarten, primary, classroom teachers, higher instruction, and rural education. And when we have

dealt with these fields they have covered quite largely the main lines of administration and of large interests. There are, however, other departments of a more special but direct and purposeful appeal, such as art and music, special education, which might include the deaf, blind, and crippled children, adult education, school health and physical education, visual instruction, vocational education, social studies, science instruction, and business education.

The various fields are being studied by the committee and if it is your permission to allow this committee to continue for another year, that field will be studied carefully for the purpose of recommending at the next meeting of the Representative Assembly a specific line of procedure which will clear up our ideas and find how these various special activities, administrative departments, sectional organizations, conference committees, and so forth, can function so that there shall be no overlapping and no field of activity unmet.

We come then today to simply report progress and ask for the continuance of the committee, and if it meets with your approval, that you approve the action which we have taken in reporting to the Board of Directors that the kindergarten-primary department be organized as one; that a department of lip reading be authorized, and that the department of junior high school principals should be organized as a department of administration.

I might say that there is under consideration and friendly negotiation, plans whereby we hope the department of secondary principals, or the senior high school principals' association may become an integral part of this great Association. They have a national organization of their own, and so far they have maintained it, although they have been meeting with this department, with this National Association at times, and with the Department of Superintendence at the mid-winter meeting. A committee consisting of the chairman of the committee, Mr. Pearse, and Mr. Hunter of the Board of Directors, the President of the Association, and Secretary, have been authorized upon our recommendation to confer with the officers of the secondary principals' association to see if some equitable plan cannot be worked out whereby that great division of educational administration shall become an essential part of this field, for we believe that all the forces which deal with public education ought to be a part of the National Association, and we hope that this great national association shall be included in it, as a part of it, the department of administration, of instruction, of special interest, and that thereby there shall be an appeal to all of the teachers of America.

This, Madam President, is the report of the committee on reorganization, and I submit it for your consideration. I recommend that it be received and that the committee be continued for another year. I make that motion. (The motion was seconded.)

Miss McSkimmon: Is there any discussion of this motion?

H. B. Peabody: May I ask why there was no department of mathematics, of English, or of foreign languages? (The question was answered by Dr. Condon.)

David A. Ward of Delaware: At a meeting of the junior high school principals a vote was taken to appoint a committee to confer with and study the question of consolidation with the secondary school principals and to report a year hence. I am wondering whether it would be agreeable for action on the establishment of a department of junior high school principals to be deferred until after that report. (The motion was answered by Dr. Condon.)

Miss McSkimmon: Are you ready for the question? (The motion was then put and carried.) It is a vote.

The next item of business will be the report of our Secretary, *J. W. Crabtree*.

Mr. Crabtree. (He called attention to a few points in the report which he considered of great importance.) I move, Madam President, that the report be received. (The motion was seconded.)

Miss McSkimmon: It is moved and seconded that the Secretary's report be received. (The motion was put and carried.)

(Following the report of the Secretary, *Augustus O. Thomas* of Maine, moved the following resolution of appreciation and confidence.)

After listening to the most enlightening and excellent report of the Secretary, *James W. Crabtree*, we are impressed with the success which has attended the Association under his secretaryship and since the reorganization which took place six years ago in carrying on the campaign for membership and in the solidarity which has come to the organization, together with the building of departments for greater usefulness to the cause of education. *Mr. Crabtree* has presented an organizing ability seldom found. His achievement is worthy of note among the great accomplishments of the century in American education. It is fitting, therefore, that the Representative Assembly go on record as recognizing this achievement by a vote of confidence and full appreciation of the masterful service *Mr. Crabtree* has rendered.

And further, that this resolution be spread upon the minutes of this meeting. (The motion was put and carried.)

Miss McSkimmon: That is for you, Mr. Secretary.

Let us now listen to the report of the Treasurer and since our Treasurer, dear *Dr. Smith*, is sick and in the hospital, I am asking *Mr. Siders*, chairman of the Board of Trustees, to present the report.

Mr. Siders: This report of the Treasurer is before you. You will find the certificate of the auditors as to its correctness. (He then explained several points in the report.) I move the adoption of the Treasurer's report. (The motion was seconded.)

Miss McSkimmon: It has been moved and seconded that we adopt this report. Are you ready for the question? (The motion was then put and carried.)

Miss Adair of Virginia: Madam Chairman, I would like to make a motion that this audience express to *Dr. Smith* its regret at his inability to be present today, and to express its very best wishes for his speedy recovery. (The motion was seconded.)

Miss McSkimmon: I am asked to explain that our dear Treasurer is in the University Hospital. He is there for observation, and the surgeon, *Dr. Polk*, hopes and believes that it may not be serious, but you know what a grief it is to him as well as to us that he cannot be with us today and I am sure we all approve of *Miss Adair's* gracious recommendation. All who desire to send to him a message of sympathy and interest will stand. (The convention rose.) I thank you. The motion is seconded. Your message shall be conveyed to him.

A. H. Chamberlain of California: California desires to express her great appreciation for the wonderful work of a wonderful woman, and in presenting to *Mary McSkimmon* this little token of appreciation the California delegates desire that each one of you will participate with us in presenting this basket of flowers to our President. (He then presented the basket of flowers to *Miss McSkimmon*. The convention rose with applause.)

Miss McSkimmon: I want to thank California the Golden, and all of you friends for this beautiful courtesy. I need no embodiment of your wonderful spirit other than that which shines forth in every day of this Assembly. It is a wonderful experience for a woman to leave her little school way down in New England for such an opportunity as I have had this year. A more glorious one can never come to anyone in her profession than this opportunity to know her country through the schools of the nation.

Cotton Mather used to say of the Pilgrims that God had sifted three nations to find the seed for that planting, and over and over and over again as I have sat here before you I have wondered at the acumen of the associations that you represent, that so uniformly, courteously, and intelligently have responded eloquently and directly to the point where you had anything to say. Your eloquence is in your attitude; your eloquence is in your faces. I wonder how many more your associations could have found right through this country that could compare with the group that they sent. Did they sift three times or thirty times three? I thank you

for this gift of flowers. I thank you for all you have done. I thank you for this wonderful opportunity to serve. I want to tell you now how much I appreciate it all and it shall go with me to the longest day I live. I thank you.

Permit me to call on the chairman of the committee for a report, *Mr. Oberholtzer* of Texas. (He then presented the auditor's report which was adopted by a vote of the Association.)

We will now listen to a report of the Board of Trustees by its chairman, *Walter R. Siders*.

Mr. Siders: (He called attention to the written report in their hands and explained a number of points.) I move the adoption of the report.

Miss McSkimmon: I know it is a gratification to you to listen to this thrifty and prosperous report. Its adoption has been moved. The motion is seconded. Are you ready for the question? (The motion was then put and carried.)

The next item of business is the report and discussion of the committee on committees by *Jesse H. Newlon* of Colorado, chairman of the committee. (He then read the report prepared by the committee. The report is printed in the *Proceedings*.)

Mr. Newlon: I move the adoption of the report. (The motion was seconded. A few questions were asked and answered.)

Miss McSkimmon: Are you now ready to vote on the adoption of the report? (The motion was called for. The motion was put and carried.)

Our next report is the report of the Executive Committee and Board of Directors, including the report of the budget committee by our overworked chairman of the budget committee, *Mr. Siders*.

Mr. Siders: (The report having been distributed among the delegates, the chairman made brief explanations of various items.) I would like to move, Madam President, the adoption of this report.

Miss McSkimmon: It is moved and seconded that we adopt this report of the Executive Committee and Board of Directors which contains the budget for the year 1926-27. Are you ready for the question? (The motion was then put and carried.)

This completes our unfinished business and the business already indicated for today, and the first item of new business is the report of the committee on resolutions to be made by its chairman, *George D. Strayer* of New York. (*Dr. Strayer* read the resolutions, which are printed in *THE JOURNAL* and in the *Proceedings*, and asked the Assembly to vote on each separately. This was done and then a motion was made, seconded, and carried to adopt the resolutions as a whole. The discussions were favorable to the resolutions, there being no objection voiced to any of them.)

Miss McSkimmon: Is there any new business to come up before this Assembly before we hear the report on the election of officers.

Delegate from New Jersey: The New Jersey delegation has unanimously voted to present the following resolution. (He read a resolution concerning the observance of Franklin's birthday.)

Miss McSkimmon: You have heard the motion made to adopt this resolution. Is it seconded? (The motion was seconded.) Is there discussion?

(*Mr. Hunter* of California made serious objection to the adoption of the resolution on the spur of the moment. He thought it should be attended to another year.)

Mr. Hunter: I move this resolution be referred to the permanent committee on resolutions. (The motion was seconded.)

Miss McSkimmon: It is moved and seconded that this resolution be turned over to the committee on resolutions.

(*Mr. Dyke* of New Jersey, *Mr. Hunter*, and others participated in the discussion.)

The motion to "refer" is before the house at this time. Is there further discus-

sion? Are you ready for the question? All those in favor of referring this matter to the permanent committee on resolutions for next year will say "aye." Those opposed, "no." The motion was carried. It will be referred. Is there any other business?

Anna G. Fraser of California: I have been asked by the California delegation to present the following motion:

Inasmuch as there is intense interest throughout the United States in the problem of sabbatical leave for teachers, and in order that the plan may be put into successful operation, I move that the division of research be instructed by this Assembly to gather full data of all the thought regarding plans for the sabbatical leave and put this material into such form that it will be available for all interested parties at cost, and the results of this study be reported to the meeting of this Association in 1927.

I move its adoption.

Miss McSkimmon: You have heard the resolution. It is entirely within our province to act upon the motion at this time. (The motion was seconded.) Is there discussion? Are you ready for the question? (The motion was then put and carried.)

Mr. Pearse of Wisconsin: Madam Chairman, may I ask whether the Executive Committee has presented in such form as to constitute sufficient notice the matter which was referred to them with reference to a bylaw to make it possible for the state associations to nominate their members of the Board of Directors.

(Remarks on this motion were made by *Mr. Crabtree*, *Mr. Hunter*, and *Mr. Newlon*.)

Madam President, I rose to make sure or to do as has been suggested, give due notice of the amendment and I hereby give notice of the resolution which I am writing out to give to the Secretary. The following is the notice:

Amend Section 2, Article II, of the Bylaws as follows:

Strike out the third sentence of the said Section 2, and insert, instead, the following:

On the first day of the annual meeting of the Association the delegates of each state, territory, or district of the United States shall nominate one person for member of the Board of Directors, provided that a nomination for member of the Board of Directors has not already been made by the state teachers' association or by the educational association of such state, territory, or district, and the nomination so made reported to the Secretary of the Association so as to be received by him not later than ten (10) days before the first day of the annual meeting; the nomination for state member of the Board of Directors may be made by the Representative Assembly of the state teachers' association or the educational association of the state, territory, or district, or, in a state, territory or district not having a representative assembly, in such manner as the state teachers' association or education association of the state, territory, or district may determine. The name of the person nominated shall be reported to the Representative Assembly at the first business meeting upon roll call of the states.

Miss McSkimmon. (Questions were asked and answered.) We have had due notice of the change to be made in the bylaws. We will now pass to the report of the Committee on Elections. *William J. Sanders* of Massachusetts is chairman of the committee and will make the report.

Mr. Sanders: The Committee on Elections cannot refrain from expressing its grateful appreciation to the headquarters staff and to members and delegates from the various states for the help which has made this election a most successful one.

The report on yesterday's election is as follows:

For President, *Francis G. Blair* of Illinois, 523 votes. *Uel W. Lamkin* of Missouri, 457 votes.

For Vicepresidents the vote was as follows:

Ira T. Chapman of New Jersey.....	766
P. P. Claxton of Oklahoma.....	809
Selden M. Ely of Washington, D. C.....	823
Mrs. Jessie M. Fink of Michigan.....	772
Harold W. Foght of South Dakota.....	733
Florence M. Hale of Maine.....	826
Arthur J. Matthews of Arizona.....	723
Sue M. Powers of Tennessee.....	716
Claude W. Sandifur of California.....	838
Joseph H. Saunders of Virginia.....	698
Helen B. Shove of Minnesota.....	779
May Trumper of Montana.....	680
Mary Ulen of Oregon.....	782

For Treasurer:

Henry Lester Smith of Indiana.....	911
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Francis G. Blair is therefore elected President and the following are elected as Vicepresidents:

Ira T. Chapman of New Jersey
P. P. Claxton of Oklahoma
Selden M. Ely of Washington, D. C.
Mrs. Jessie M. Fink of Michigan
Harold W. Foght of South Dakota
Florence M. Hale of Maine
Arthur J. Matthews of Arizona
Sue M. Powers of Tennessee
Claude W. Sandifur of California
Helen B. Shove of Minnesota
Mary Ulen of Oregon

Henry Lester Smith of Indiana is elected Treasurer.

The formal certificate of election, Madam Chairman, is signed by the chairman and seven others as attached to this report.

(At this point *Mr. Lamkin* of Missouri stepped to the platform congratulating the Association on its choice and offering all the help he could give to the administration.)

Mr. Lamkin: Madam Chairman, I move that the election of *Dr. Blair* and of these candidates for vicepresidents that you have heard named, and of *Dr. Smith* for treasurer, be made unanimous.

Mr. Sanders of Virginia: I desire the privilege of offering a second to that motion.

Miss McSkimmon: Thank you. Are you ready for the question.

(The motion was put and carried with applause.)

Mr. Crabtree is requested by *Mr. Sanders* to read the list of nominations for state director.

Mr. Crabtree: I am requested to read the nominations for state directors as nominated at the meetings of state delegations last Monday evening at 5:00 o'clock.

(He then read the list. See list of officers elsewhere in this volume.)

I move the election of the directors nominated by the different state delegations. (The motion was seconded and carried.)

Miss McSkimmon: It will now be in order for my successor, *Dr. Blair*, to come to the platform. (*Dr. Blair* came to the platform.) Ladies and gentlemen, your President for the coming year.

Dr. Blair: Madam President, members of the delegate body, I think that a newly elected candidate in one respect resembles a patient coming out from under the influence of ether or chloroform. The tendency is to talk at random and say injudicious things, and the best thing would be to confine him for a certain limited

time within a room, on the door of which would be written those lines of Kipling from the *Jungle Book*:

There is none like to me,
Said the cub in the joy of his new found skill;
But the jungle is large and the cub he is small,
Let him think and be still. (Laughter.)

But, Madam President, if I had had the choosing in this matter myself, which I did not, although I appreciate the honor to its very core, this gift of one's fellows to the highest position in education within the United States, if I could have selected for myself the time and circumstance of this election, I would have chosen to have come to this office some three or four times removed from your administration—an administration which has set new standards of brilliance and solid worth in the annals of this Association. (Applause.) And I congratulate you not only upon the great brilliancy and success of this administration of yours, but I congratulate you, Madam President, upon the fact that during your administration the badge of this Association has been the Liberty Bell. As a lad I read about that Liberty Bell and I thought of those cocksure royal governors who sought to perpetuate themselves and their policies irrespective of the desire of the people and what the ringing of that bell meant to them. With that historic background it occurs to me that it would be a fine thing if the Liberty Bell were made the permanent symbol and badge of this Association, to the end that the delegate body and the members of this Association shall always be absolutely free to change their policies and their organization without the let or hindrance of any of the members of the reigning educational dynasty. (Applause.)

To Mr. Lamkin and to the fine people who supported him, Illinois and all those who have been with Illinois extend the most hearty congratulations and the heartiest respect. I wish to assure you, Mr. Lamkin, and the fine people who stood with you from their own election and their own desire, that the door will always be open to you and them in the administration to come, and I can say that I am dead sure that the Illinois bear and the Missouri Lamkin will lie down in perfect peace and unanimity. (Laughter and applause.)

Now, what shall I say to those fine people from dear Alabama down to the Virgin Islands, that helped to take an ordinary paving brick and by their energies lift it up to this great height? I can say to them that it is one of the grandest and most glorious feelings that ever came to me, and that I hope the brick which you have lifted up to these great heights will not arrogate to itself that this exaltation has turned it to silver or to gold, but that it will always recognize the great democratic policy of this organization, that he who is lifted up is lifted up for service, and that his service will be the larger when he consults and moves with the voice and the will of this great Association. I thank you. (Applause.)

Miss McSkimmon: I am not going to try to express to you the sense of wealth, unbounded, wonderful, that I take away with me from my year's chance of service for you and with you in this great organization of which we are all so proud. I thank you everyone. I call many people, whose names alone were known to me a year ago, my friends, and I thank you all over this land for all that you have done in trying to make me more worthy of the opportunity that I have to go back to my own children and meet their challenge.

I thank you with all my heart, and now I will recognize a motion to adjourn.

A voice: Madam President, before we adjourn, as the very last act of this assembly, I move that we give a rising vote of thanks to the capable president of this Association for her sincere and unselfish service during the past year.

Mr. Newton, vicepresident. (Stepping forward.) Is there a second to that motion? (It was seconded by delegates in all parts of the assembly. The convention stood in great applause.) The motion is carried unanimously and the meeting is adjourned.

REPORT OF THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE FOR THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS TO THE REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY

The Executive Committee submits for consideration the following report and recommendations:

Report of the Budget Committee

Budget for June 1, 1926, to May 31, 1927

Basis of the Budget

The sum of the cash receipts of the last fiscal year and the amount remaining after all bills of the last fiscal year are paid is taken as the basis of the budget for 1926-1927.

For the General Association (after charge-offs)	\$378,202.32
From the computation immediately below, add.....	44,227.42

AVAILABLE FOR THE BUDGET.....	\$422,429.74
Computation Current Accounts:	

Cash on Hand at end of Fiscal Year.....	\$58,875.47
Accounts Receivable	12,143.51

\$71,018.98

Less Obligations:

Trust Funds:

Department of Superintendence	\$5,160.98
Department of Elementary Prin.....	1,748.22
Department of Adult Education.....	633.99

\$7,543.19

Current bills (Vouchers Payable).....	19,248.37
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26,791.56

\$44,227.42

Schedule of Expenses

Schedule	Purpose of Expense	Expended 1925-1926	Budget 1926-1927
1.	Board of Trustees	\$768.79	\$900.00
2.	Executive Committee	3,904.91	4,200.00
3.	Secretary's Office	19,845.15	21,700.00
4.	Division of Accounts	5,643.87	8,002.00
5.	Legislative Division	16,532.55	17,400.00
6.	Division of Business	20,058.64	21,166.00
7.	Division of Publications	17,170.45	21,851.58
8.	Division of Research	22,454.53	27,490.07
9.	Division of Classroom Service.....	6,088.77	6,470.00
10.	Division of Administrative Service.....	2,994.55	4,120.00
11.	Division of Records and Membership.....	20,519.06	22,548.00
12.	Physical Plant	20,786.02	20,786.02
13.	General Expense Headquarters	6,496.32	6,673.35
14.	Annual Convention	8,502.45	7,024.39
15a.	Collection of Membership Dues.....	10,566.86	10,000.00
15b.	Membership Campaign	15,364.56	18,185.04
16.	Journal of the N. E. A.....	92,687.66	92,687.66
17.	Research Bulletin	6,867.12	7,232.81
18.	Financing Delegates	9,379.00	10,000.00

Schedule	Purpose of Expense	Expended	Budget
		1925-1926	1926-1927
19.	Special Appropriations	15,279.75	36,900.00
20.	Office Furniture and Fixtures.....	3,614.07	9,781.12
21.	Volume of Proceedings	8,458.22	9,126.46
22.	Associations Membership Fees	1,100.00	1,100.00
23.	Publications and Reports for General Sale.....		3,000.00
24.	Budget Balancing Funds		
	Permanent Fund	2,500.00	9,117.29
	Reserve Fund		15,000.00
	Emergency and Adjustment Fund.....		9,967.95
	Totals	\$337,573.30	\$422,429.74
1.	Board of Trustees	\$768.79	\$900.00 (a)
	Totals	\$768.79	\$900.00
(a) Provision is made for fall meeting of Board and consideration given of additional expense in attendance at Dallas.			
2.	Executive Committee:		
	President (1924-25)	\$692.31	
	President (1925-26)	1,074.43	
	First Vice-President (1924-25)	138.28	
	First Vice-President (1925-26)	411.04	
	Treasurer (1924-25)	116.13	
	Treasurer (1925-26)	203.06	
	Chairman Board of Trustees (1925-26)....	771.48	
	Member by election (1924-25).....	257.83	
	Member by election (1925-26).....	240.35	
	Totals	\$3,904.91	\$4,200.00 (a)
(a) Provision is made for the usual fall meeting of the Trustees and Executive Committee and consideration given of additional expense involved in attendance at Dallas meeting of the Department of Superintendence.			
3.	General Secretary's Office:		
	Salaries and clerical service.....	\$17,411.55	\$18,800.00 (a)
	Traveling expenses	507.10	800.00 (b)
	Stationery and office supplies.....	408.66	500.00
	Postage and stamped envelopes.....	925.47	1,000.00
	Telegrams	304.41	300.00
	General Expense	287.96	300.00
	Totals	\$19,845.15	\$21,700.00
(a) This item covers the salaries of the secretary, assistant to the secretary, three stenographers and clerks and about \$2,500 for an additional clerk and for typing.			
(b) The meeting of the Department of Superintendence will be held at Dallas and there will be other additional costs for the year.			
4.	Division of Accounts:		
	Clerical services	\$5,359.64	\$7,152.00 (a)
	Traveling expense		400.00 (b)
	Stationery and office supplies.....	160.23	200.00 (c)
	Postage and stamped envelopes.....	124.00	240.00 (d)
	Telegrams		10.00
	Totals	\$5,643.87	\$8,002.00

(a) The pay roll as it now stands covers an annual expenditure of \$6,192.00. This budget is increased for the year 1926-27 by the salary of at least one more clerk to handle the recording of the increased daily receipts.

(b) To cover traveling expenses to two conventions. In former years Mrs. Hixson's traveling expenses to the conventions were taken care of through a charge to the Registration, Annual Convention.

(c) To cover the purchase of additional books and supplies for handling the accounts of the Association.

(d) To cover an almost doubled cost in sending out bills and statements due to the large increase in our Accounts Receivable, and to care for additional correspondence.

5. Field Division (Legislative):

Salaries	\$12,091.04 (a)	\$12,200.00
Traveling expenses	1,425.48	1,500.00
Stationery and office supplies.....	128.27	200.00
Postage and stamped envelopes.....	514.95	700.00
Telegrams	150.07	300.00
General expense	2,222.74	2,500.00

Totals	\$16,532.55	\$17,400.00
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(a) The item on salaries covers the salary of the Field Secretary, one assistant, one stenographer and one part-time typist.

6. Division of Business:

Salaries and clerical expense.....	\$9,014.46	\$9,264.00
Traveling expense	769.44	775.00
Stationery and office supplies.....	147.78	150.00
Postage and stamped envelopes.....	294.57	300.00
Telegrams	37.61	35.00
Typing section	20.10	20.00
Mailing section	2,559.06	2,722.00
Multigraph section		20.00
Addressograph section	7,215.62	7,880.00

Totals	\$20,058.64	\$21,166.00
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7. Division of Publications:

Salaries and clerical services.....	\$15,210.25	\$18,054.00 (a)
Traveling expense	398.48	888.77 (b)
Stationery and office supplies.....	250.68	300.68 (c)
Postage and stamped envelopes.....	481.05	681.05 (c)
Telegrams	125.77	144.77 (c)
General expense	175.06	225.06
Books and pamphlets	7.54	90.00 (c)
Reprints	310.06	467.25 (c)
Photographs and prints	211.56	
Electro-Mat-Photo-Slide service		1,000.00 (d)

Totals	\$17,170.45	\$21,851.58
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(a) This item covers salary of the director, one first assistant, and seven clerks and stenographers.

(b) This item covers travel in connection with speaking engagements already scheduled for this year and includes some provision for travel in the interest of THE JOURNAL. Honorariums will offset most of this expense. Honorariums received 1925-26 for special services and turned into the Association's general fund, \$520.00.

(c) Increases in these items are intended to allow a wider range of service demanded by the growth of the Association and its activities.

(d) During the present year experiments have been made to test the advisability of adding to the Association's photograph service, mats, electros, and slides. The response has been sufficient to demand provision for this expenditure.

8. Division of Research:

Salaries	\$19,115.33	\$21,119.00 (a)
Traveling expense	366.04	366.04
Stationery and office supplies.....	393.18	393.18
Postage and stamped envelopes.....	540.17	540.17
Telegrams	144.02	144.02
General expense	807.66	807.66
Books and pamphlets (library).....	1,088.13	250.00
Additional help		{ 2,200.00 (b)
		{ 1,670.00 (c)
Totals	\$22,454.53	\$27,490.07

(a) This covers salaries of the present members of the staff.

(b) Salary librarian arranged for last year.

(c) Additional help needed.

9. Division of Classroom Service:

Salaries and clerical service.....	\$5,541.36	\$5,800.00 (a)
Traveling expense	212.16	300.00 (b)
Stationery and office supplies.....	115.90	130.00 (b)
Postage and stamped envelopes.....	156.91	175.00 (b)
Telegrams	17.44	20.00 (b)
General expense	45.00	45.00
Totals	\$6,088.77	\$6,470.00

(a) This increase is to provide for an extra clerk for April, May and June during the time we are working on the summer convention plans. This includes the general program, correspondence with departments, allied organizations and committees, and editing the Yearbook of the Department of Classroom Teachers.

(b) Small increases have been made here to take care of the general expansion of the Division.

10. Division of Administrative Service:

Salaries and clerical service.....	\$2,797.44	\$3,900.00
Stationery and office supplies.....	68.77	70.00
Postage and stamped envelopes.....	2.23	25.00
Traveling expense	126.11	125.00
Totals	\$2,994.55	\$4,120.00

11. Division of Records and Membership:

Salaries and clerical service.....	\$19,362.81	\$21,048.00 (a)
Traveling expenses	518.00	750.00
Stationery and supplies	343.32	350.00
Postage and stamped envelopes.....	275.98	300.00
Telegrams	13.95	50.00
General expense	5.00	50.00
Totals	\$20,519.06	\$22,548.00

(a) This sum is for salaries of members of the staff, Division of Records and Membership at the rates now being paid, with new help needed. (Three new clerks.)

Schedule	Purpose of Expense	Expended 1925-1926	Budget 1926-1927
12.	Physical Plant:		
	Rent	\$15,000.00	\$15,000.00 (a)
	Lights and power	873.25	873.25
	Heat	1,209.92	1,209.92
	Janitor service	1,635.25	1,635.25
	Maintenance	2,067.60	2,067.60 (b)
	Totals	\$20,786.02	\$20,786.02

(a) Fixed by Board of Trustees.

(b) Includes all janitors and maintenance supplies, extra cleaning, elevator upkeep, minor repairs and service material.

13. General Expenses Headquarters:

Telephone Service.....	\$2,027.93	\$1,728.57
Telegrams	144.13	144.13
Repairs—Office Furniture and Equipment....	377.91	377.91
Insurance	92.47	472.94
General Expense	69.00	69.00
Subscriptions to Journals.....	28.06	28.06
Purchase of Books and Pamphlets.....	45.74	75.00
Refunds of Membership.....	164.35	164.35
Purchase of Back Volumes.....	4.00	10.00
Express and Freight.....	689.34	750.00
Interest and Discounts Allowed.....	1,337.90	1,337.90
Surety Bonds	210.00	210.00
Auditing Accounts of Association.....	813.67	813.67
Postage, Misc., Reports and Pamphlets.....	491.82	491.82
Totals	\$6,496.32	\$6,673.35

14. Annual Convention:

Department Expenses.....	\$322.24	\$350.00
State Directors.....	400.59	500.00
Registration	559.52	559.52
Stenographers and Typing.....	111.47	111.47
Publicity	1,097.90	1,000.00
Printing—Programs	1,132.42	1,300.00
Printing—Miscellaneous	568.40	568.40
Express and Freight.....	190.82	175.00
Telephone and Telegrams	92.15	85.00
General Expense	1,109.70	1,000.00
Badges	207.80	175.00
Representative Assembly Expense.....	708.27	1,000.00
Special Committees Appointed by President..	130.16	200.00
Sesqui Pageant Expenses.....	1,871.01 (a)	
Totals	\$8,502.45	\$7,024.39

(a) Pamphlets which were sold for \$2,042.75.

15. Membership Expense:

Collection of Dues.....	\$10,556.86	\$10,000.00
Publicity in Anticipation of Membership....	15,364.56	18,185.04
Totals	\$25,921.42	\$28,185.04 (a)

(a) These items cover all blanks, material, labor, postage, etc., in membership drives and collection of dues. Revised postage rates have increased costs. Expense as divided between two items is more or less interchangeable.

This year we received over \$6,000 from the Sesquicentennial authorities for making and announcing the publication of a book on pageants. We made that amount count on membership as well as on the pageant and used of our own funds on the pageant only \$871.01. Besides this we sold books to the amount of \$2,042.75. We should have found it necessary to exceed the budget had it not been for that opportunity. The \$1,871.01 expense on the pageant is included in annual convention expenses.

Schedule	Purpose of Expense.	Expended 1925-1926	Budget 1926-1927
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16. Journal of the National Education Association:

Printing and Distribution:.....	\$92,687.66	\$92,687.66
Totals	\$92,687.66	\$92,687.66

Increases in membership automatically increase costs of printing and distribution.

17. Research Bulletin:

Printing and Distributing.....	\$6,867.12 (a)	\$7,232.81 (b)
Totals	\$6,867.12	\$7,232.81

(a) The expenditures of \$312.55 over the budget appropriation is part of the cost of a reprint of 7,500 copies of *Keeping Pace with the Advancing Curriculum* (in addition to the first printing of 15,500 copies), made necessary by the heavy demand for this issue of the Bulletin. The income from the sale of this reprint was approximately \$2,500.

(b) A ruling of the Post Office Department prevents the future issuance of double numbers of the *Research Bulletin*. Therefore five separate issues of the *Research Bulletin* will have to be printed and mailed during 1926-27. Previous experience indicates that the five Bulletins to be issued during 1926-27 will cost as follows: 3 at \$1,620.34, 1 at \$1,921.91, and 1 at \$449.88 or a total of \$7,232.81.

18. Financing Delegates	\$9,379.00	\$10,000.00
Totals	\$9,379.00	\$10,000.00

19. Special Appropriations—Committees:

Educational Nomenclature.....	\$31.88
Character and Citizenship.....	199.33
Foreign Relations (Publicity).....	31.71
Health Education.....	3,045.35
Legislative Commission.....	772.13
Classification of Ed. Material.....	249.90
Tenure	81.68
Thrift Education	1.80
Research Advisory	
Dept. of Classroom Teachers.....	6,040.42
American Education Week.....	236.68

Schedule	Purpose of Expense	Expended 1925-1926	Budget 1926-1927
	Dept. Elem. School Principals.....	1,400.00	
	American School Program.....		
	One Hundred on Rural Teacher Problems..		
	English		
	One Hundred on Retirement Allowances....	58.93	
	One Hundred on Classroom Teacher Prob- lems	311.60	
	Behavior Problem—Child		
	One Thousand on Child Labor.....	123.65	
	Co-inclusive Membership.....		
	Community Relations	64.12	
	Professional Ethics	150.62	
	Standard Requirements and Credits for Teachers	12.88	
	Teaching Democracy	20.73	
	Character Development as a School Problem		
	Visual Education	39.73	
	Reorganization of Departments.....		
	Home for Retired Teachers.....	213.87	
	Dept. of Adult Education.....	500.00	
	Editorial Council.....	500.00	
	Illiteracy Commission.....	117.93	
	Standardization of School House Planning..	81.57	
	Museums	49.46	
	Kindergarten Education.....	943.78	
	Totals.....	\$15,279.75	\$36,900.00 (a)

(a) By vote of the Representative Assembly in 1925, it was decided that all committees expire with the year of their appointment. The Executive Committee was authorized to appoint new service committees, to renew former committees and to fix the allowance of each committee.

20. Office Furniture and Fixtures (a).....	\$3,614.07	\$9,781.12 (b)
Totals	\$3,614.07	\$9,781.12

(a) Office furniture and fixtures purchased under this head become a part of fixed assets of the Association and practically amount to an investment.

(b) Expenditures for 1924-25 were reduced to such a minimum that the increased appropriation for 1925-26 was hardly more than sufficient to meet replacement demands and very limited additions. Institutional and divisional requirement for equipment are urgent.

21. Volume of Proceedings.....	\$8,458.22	\$9,126.46 (a)
Totals	\$8,458.22	\$9,126.46

(a) 5653 copies printed 1925-26 of which only 90 copies are left in stock.

Order for 1926-27 should be 6250 copies as \$5.00 membership shows steady increases.

Estimate of cost:

For 5500 copies.....	\$6,800.44
For 750 copies additional.....	825.00
For distribution.....	1,051.02
For miscellaneous labor and extras.....	450.00
Total	\$9,126.46

22. Association Membership Fees:

World Federation of Educational Association	\$1,000.00	\$1,000.00 (a)
American Council of Education.....	100.00	100.00 (a)
Totals	\$1,100.00	\$1,100.00

(a) Membership fees as fixed by organizations of which N. E. A. is a member.

23. Publications and Reports for General Sale....	\$3,000.00 (a)
Total	\$3,000.00

(a) This is a proposed new account designed to provide funds out of which expense of occasional publications or reprints for general sale may be met. Such publications will produce income well in excess of cost. Typical of publications that would be financed out of such an appropriation is a report "Health Education."

Ten thousand copies of "Health Education" were reprinted in 1925-26 at a cost of \$2,147.56. Approximately 6,500 copies have been distributed within the year producing an income of \$4,200. Present stock on hand 3,500 copies, will be sold at an income of approximately \$2200. Because of lack of appropriation for such a purpose cost of these reprints and cost of reprinting 5000 copies of pamphlet "Health Improvement of Rural Schools," \$421.25, were carried as additional charges against appropriation of Joint Health Committee.

Schedule Purpose of Expense	Expended 1925-1926	Budget 1926-1927
24. Budget Balancing Funds: (a)		
Permanent Fund.....	\$2,500.00	\$9,117.29 (b)
Reserve Fund		15,000.00 (c)
Emergency or Adjustment Fund—Subject to appropriation by Executive Committee....		9,967.95 (d)
Totals	\$2,500.00	\$34,085.24

(a) To balance budget against amount available for same.

(b) Fixed by report of Executive Committee as adopted at Indianapolis meeting—i. e., one fourth of increase in income of membership dues over income of last year. It is recommended that half the increase of 1926-27 over 1925-26 be turned into the permanent fund.

(c) A fund proposed as a reserve which may be invested in such form as to be made readily available by action of Board of Trustees in the event of serious delays in receipt of membership dues or other income because of epidemics or business depression; such fund under control of Board of Trustees.

(d) To meet necessary salary increases and other special projects and needs, the same to be used only as appropriated by the Executive Committee. Estimated at one fourth of amount remaining available after appropriations listed elsewhere are deducted from total amount available for budget.

Respectfully submitted,

WALTER R. SIDERS, *Chairman*,

OLIVE M. JONES,

HENRY LESTER SMITH,

E. M. CARTER,

S. D. SHANKLAND,

F. E. REYNOLDS,

JULIA SULLIVAN,

JOHN W. WITHERS (not present),

BUDGET COMMITTEE.

Recommendations

1. The Executive Committee recommends that the Committee on Resolutions and the Committee on Necrology, elected at this meeting, make reports at the next annual meeting of the Association and that hereafter each of these committees have the full year for the preparation of its report.

2. The Executive Committee recommends that all larger departments of the Association be encouraged to adopt bylaws providing for special membership dues in the department.

3. Section 1 of Article X of the Bylaws of the Association provides: "Unless otherwise ordered by the Representative Assembly at the annual business meetings, not less than 10 percent of the gross income of the Association each year shall be set aside for such educational investigations and studies as may be ordered in accordance with Section 5 of Article III."

Section 5 of Article III provides: "* * * The Executive Committee shall recommend to the Representative Assembly at the annual business meeting the appointment of special committees for investigation or research, the subjects for which may have been suggested by the National Council or by the active membership of the National Education Association or by any of its departments; it shall recommend the amount of money to be appropriated for such investigations. When such special committees are provided for and duly authorized by the Representative Assembly at the annual business meeting, the Executive Committee shall have supervision of them, and shall print such reports and presents the same. * * *"

In accordance with these requirements there is set up in the budget the sum of \$36,900 for such special investigations and research. The request for committee appropriations usually come in after the adjournment of the annual meeting. It is, therefore, requested that the Executive Committee be given the authority of the Representative Assembly to constitute such committees for investigation or research, and to provide such other services as shall advance the interests of the Association.

The Executive Committee requests the authority of the Representative Assembly to redistribute the amounts assigned by this budget where an amount remains after the completion of the work to which the sum was budgeted, or where the best interests of the Association demand a readjustment.

Respectfully submitted,

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE.

SUMMARY OF THE MINUTES OF THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE FOR THE YEAR 1925-26

Colorado Springs, Colorado, October 9-10, 1925

A meeting of the Executive Committee was held at the Broadmoor Hotel, Colorado Springs, Colorado, October 9 and 10, 1925. The first session was called to order Friday morning, October 9, at 9:30 o'clock, by the President, *Miss McSkimmon*, with the following present: *Miss Adair*, *Mr. Newlon*, *Mr. Smith*, and the chairman, *Miss McSkimmon*. *Mr. Gwinn* of the Board of Trustees was present on invitation. *Mr. Siders* was absent, his train being late. Both *Mr. Pearse* and *Mr. Finegan* of the Board of Trustees had engagements which prevented their attendance.

The Secretary exhibited a map of the United States charted to show the co-operative plan and extent of curriculum revision. He also distributed information concerning the work of revision to date. He exhibited charts showing membership and 100 percent schools in the various states.

Report of Dr. Russell on the World Federation—*William F. Russell*, chairman of the delegation at the World Conference, arrived at this time and was called upon for a report of the Edinburgh meeting. His report showed that the American delegation had made due effort to carry out the instructions of the Representative Assembly passed at the Indianapolis meeting. They failed on vital points because of different conditions in Europe. He attributed the success of the meeting largely to the diplomacy and statesmanship of *Dr. Thomas* as a presiding officer. He mentioned the various points considered by the American delegation and the discussion of questions which came up in general sessions. After he completed his report it was moved by *Mr. Newlon* and seconded by *Miss Adair* that a vote of thanks be given *Dr. Russell* and his delegation for their excellent work in Edinburgh. The vote was unanimously carried. The president, *Miss McSkimmon*, expressed her sense of gratitude to *Dr. Russell* for coming so far to tell the committee about the meeting.

Dr. Russell made chairman—*Miss McSkimmon* announced her desire to appoint *Dr. Russell* as chairman of the Committee on International Relations, assuring him that it was the wish of all who attended the meeting of the World Federation and of all of the members of the Executive Committee that he accept. *Dr. Russell* thanked *Miss McSkimmon* and the committee for the appointment stating that he looked upon it as a great honor and that he would handle the work to the best of his ability.

On motion a recess was taken until 2:00 o'clock in the afternoon.

Friday afternoon, October 9, 1925, 2:00 o'clock

At 2:00 o'clock the meeting was called to order with all members of the Executive Committee and *Dr. Gwinn* of the Board of Trustees present. *Mr. Siders* had arrived during the recess. *Dr. Gwinn* was asked to participate in all discussions. It was explained to him that at all meetings of the Executive Committee members of the Board of Trustees had all the rights of the committee except that of voting and that the Board of Trustees extended similar privileges to members of the Executive Committee at its meetings.

The Secretary then read the minutes of the Indianapolis meeting which were approved as read. At this point a telegram from *Miss Chase* stated that fifty-one 100 per cent schools reported on Friday, October 9.

The Philadelphia meeting—The Chairman asked the Secretary to explain the steps taken in locating the next annual meeting at Philadelphia, and after he had finished, *Miss McSkimmon* made further explanation herself. A motion was then made by *Mr. Newlon*, seconded by *Miss Adair*, that the committee express appreciation for the arrangements made by *Miss McSkimmon* for the Philadelphia meeting. Unanimously carried.

America's challenge to her teachers—Miss McSkimmon explained what she had in mind for the program of the Philadelphia meeting, stating that she wished to have as the central thought, "America's challenge to her teachers." She explained how the theme would work out in making the program. Members of the committee were pleased with the plans.

A pageant for Philadelphia meeting—A motion was passed authorizing the Secretary to arrange for a suitable pageant for the Philadelphia meeting and one which could be used in all of the school systems of the country.

Miss McSkimmon described in detail the appointment of committees and asked for suggestions. Many suggestions were made and Miss McSkimmon thanked the committee for its constructive help.

Mr. Siders receives Near East gavel—At this time a telegram was received concerning a parcel by air post which had just arrived. The president, Miss McSkimmon, read the telegram: "Have shipped by air post one olive wood gavel made by Near East Relief orphans in Nazareth Industrial School for presentation to Mr. Siders. Gavel presented brought by Edward Blatchford, Palestine, Near East Director. Regret lack of inscription plate due to fact gavel just arrived. We shall be glad to add silver plate at Mr. Sider's convenience. Greatly appreciate your making presentation on behalf orphans saved by public schools in America. Herbert E. Willett, Jr., Secretary Public School Bureau." The president then instructed the Secretary to hand the gavel to Mr. Siders who expressed pleasure on receiving it, stating that because of his interest in the welfare of children everywhere and particularly in the Near East and because of his sentiment in matters connected with the Holy Land, he would be most proud to accept the gavel as a cherished and sacred memento.

A recess was then taken until 8:00 o'clock in the evening.

Friday evening, October 9, 1925, 8:00 o'clock

Mr. Siders reports Edinburgh meeting—At 8:00 o'clock the meeting was again called to order and Mr. Siders was requested to relate his experiences in conducting the meetings of the Committee on Constitution and Bylaws at the World Conference. He described in detail the work of the committee. His account of the general meetings was most interesting and in harmony with the report given by Dr. Russell.

Reports of headquarters staff—The Secretary then presented brief reports prepared by the directors of divisions in the headquarters staff. He called attention to the most important points in each. He presented them in the following order: Report of the legislative division, Miss Williams, director; report of the division of publications, Mr. Morgan, director; report of the division of classroom service, Miss Winn, director; report of the division of accounts, Mrs. Hixson, director; report of the division of research, Mr. Norton, director; report of the division of administrative service, Mr. Shankland, director; report of the division of business, Mr. Allan, director.

Increase advertising rates—A motion was passed approving of a thirty percent increase in advertising rates and the Secretary was authorized to have the director of the business division put the increase into effect as soon as consistent with present contracts. In the matter of increasing the size of THE JOURNAL for February, it was agreed that the reading material should not at present be increased beyond thirty-two pages, but if the amount of advertising should demand it, the number of pages should be temporarily increased, but for advertising only.

Changes in record cards—A motion was passed authorizing the Secretary to make the changes in the record as recommended by Mr. Martin, using the two card system instead of three.

Health charts—It was moved by Mr. Newlon, seconded by Mr. Smith, that the health charts and reports be reprinted if the expense is not too great. Carried.

Volume of poems—It was moved by Mr. Newlon, seconded by Miss Adair, to

permit the Secretary to accept the invitation of a publishing company to print a volume of poems decided upon by JOURNAL vote as most desirable for the schools as recommended by *Mr. Morgan*, provided that the royalty should be put into the permanent fund of the Association. Carried.

President Frazier—A letter from the president of the Idaho State Teachers Association on the question of the recent dismissal of *Dr. Frazier* from the presidency of a State Teachers College was read and the Secretary was directed to write *Dr. Frazier* commending him for his good work and high educational ideals in harmony with the report of the state association.

Payment expenses Indianapolis meeting—It was explained that the expenses for the Indianapolis meeting exceeded what was expected and what was raised locally by about \$410. *Mr. Siders* moved that the Secretary be authorized to voucher up the bill for payment by the Association. Seconded by *Mr. Newlon*. Carried.

Committee on ethics—A motion was made by *Mr. Newlon* and seconded by *Miss Adair* to pay the expenses of *Miss Muir* for a meeting of the Committee on Ethics at Washington at the time of the meeting of the Department of Superintendence. Carried. The meeting then adjourned to reconvene at 9:30 Saturday morning, October 10.

Saturday morning, October 10, 1925, 9:30 oclock

The meeting was called to order at 9:30 o'clock as arranged with all members of the Executive Committee and *Dr. Gwinn* of the Board of Trustees answering to roll call.

Classics for American youth—After discussing a plan of securing a list of 100 books for school children of the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades by *President Bryan* of Indiana University, it was moved by *Miss Adair*, seconded by *Mr. Newlon*, that a committee for the selection of classics for American Youth be appointed. Carried. *Mr. Smith* moved, seconded by *Miss Adair*, that the President of the National Education Association be appointed a member of this committee. Carried. *Mr. Siders* wanted it understood that this is not to be turned over to any one for commercial exploitation.

Exhibits—After discussing the objection filed by the Department of Superintendence concerning material sent out by the Associated Exhibitors, *Mr. Siders* moved, seconded by *Mr. Newlon*, that the Secretary be given full authority to handle this matter and to go as far as necessary to bring it to a conclusion. Carried. The opinion was freely expressed that the price of exhibit space is low rather than high.

After discussing a request of *Robert Evans* of London, concerning the help of the Association in interesting teachers to attend the summer session in London, a motion was made by *Mr. Siders*, seconded by *Miss Adair*, that the request be tabled. Carried.

Mr. Morgan, Editor, Editorial Board—The committee next took up an item of unfinished business, that of deciding on *Mr. Morgan's* title as managing editor of THE JOURNAL, and that of the consideration of an editorial board to take the place of the position of editor-in-chief, held by *W. C. Bagley*, who recently resigned the position. These questions were discussed at length.

A motion was made by *Mr. Newlon*, seconded by *Mr. Siders*, that *Mr. Morgan's* title be that of editor of THE JOURNAL instead of managing editor and that an editorial board consisting of not more than seven members, not including the Secretary, who is to represent the Executive Committee, be appointed by the President; this board to be advisory to the editor and to have authority in matters of great importance in giving the editor direction as to the editorial policy of the paper. Carried. The Secretary asked whether he would, in representing the Executive Committee, have veto power over matters of policy and concerning editorials and articles to appear in the paper. He stated that if not given the final word the Executive Committee would lose control of policies. It was explained

that this authority should be continued in the hands of the Secretary. The Chairman ruled that the Secretary would have the veto power and the full directive authority (for the Executive Committee) of this board when appointed and of all other committees and boards.

The schedule of salary increases—The Secretary, having been called upon to present the salary schedule, made the following preliminary statement:

The Association has grown rapidly in membership. It has grown even more rapidly in the amount and extent of the service which it renders to the profession. The responsibility of the divisions of the Headquarters Staff has increased in a corresponding degree. Owing to limited funds available, the salaries of members of the staff have not been increased to meet these increased requirements and demands.

The improvement in the financial condition of the Association makes it possible to give slight increases in salaries at this time. The outlook for the current year gives promise that we can give similar increases next year. The proposed increases, as shown in the attached schedule of salaries, to take effect immediately, contemplate additional increases for the year 1926-27. In allowing increases at all comparable with outside offers, there is little left for expert clerks and stenographers. Perhaps particular attention may be given to them next year. Present salaries are low, considering what is demanded of these staff members and considering the high cost of living in Washington. The total increases represent about all that can safely be risked at this time.

It is only because of the great love of rendering service through the National Education Association that we did not, during the summer vacation, lose a number of the members of the Headquarters Staff. Of those who hold responsible positions and whose work has counted materially in giving the Association standing, the following have recently received offers of much better salaries than they are now receiving: Mr. Morgan, Mr. Norton, Miss Alltucker, Mr. Allan, and Miss Chase. The proposed increase will be, we believe, satisfactory in each case, yet in no case does the increase bring the salary up to that which was offered. Some of those who have not been offered outside places would have received calls had it been thought possible to secure their services. A few of our clerks and expert stenographers have left us for better salaries elsewhere.

There are few weak places in the entire staff. No one can spend time in the various divisions without being impressed with the volume of work turned out and with the spirit of cooperation which pervades the building. This cooperative spirit not only increases the output of work, but it prevents much duplication and saves thousands of dollars annually to the Association. Ours is a Ford plan turning out high class cars. Ours is also, we hope, the Ford appreciation as to giving increases in pay to those who do the work, as the business justifies.

The proposed increases in this schedule can be cared for in some of the divisions in the appropriations already made. In others, the increases call for something from the fund for emergency allowances. We can give these small increases without adding to the following divisions: The Secretary's office, Accounts, Legislative, Records and Membership, Classroom Service, and Administrative Service. It will be necessary to add to the appropriation for salaries for the Business Division about \$750; for the Division of Publications about \$600, and for the Division of Research \$500, which would take out of the emergency fund \$1850. This we believe can be spared. One of the purposes of the emergency fund was to care for salary increases. The Department of Superintendence will pay \$500 to \$800 on the increase in salary for Miss Alltucker in appreciation of her outstanding work on the curriculum. There is no apology to make for the increases for heads of divisions, but this proposed schedule is weak in its allowances for clerks and stenographers.

The emergency fund is \$5623.73. After deducting \$1850, there will be left \$3773.73 to meet other needs.

The additions to the pay for temporary help are only for experienced help that we strongly desire to hold. We only call back a second year those who more than make good. The Government gets far too many after they have had training at our plant. It pays to give these slight increases in order to retain the best of these girls for a few years at least. There are no weak ones in the experienced temporary help in any division, because when a girl does not make good during the year she is not asked to return the following year. In case of the girls on minimum pay, there are, of course, a few who are not entirely satisfactory. Some are doing very good work now. Others show promise. Since most of the temporary help is not needed in June, July, and August, we have no trouble in dropping out those who do not make good. Our most serious problem is that of holding those who do make good.

I, therefore, recommend the adoption of this proposed schedule of increases, with such amendments as the committee sees fit to make, to begin with the month of October, for those on the permanent roll, and with the week beginning October 11 for those on the temporary roll. I recommend the continuance of the policy of requiring action on the part of the Executive Committee in electing and fixing the salaries of all permanent members of the staff, and that of leaving the employment and salary per week for temporary help in the hands of the Secretary. If there should be a desire to promote one from the temporary to the permanent list, the matter would go to the Executive Committee for consideration in form of a recommendation.

The schedule of increases in salaries for members of the headquarters staff was presented for the consideration of the committee and was discussed at length. The whole policy of salary increases was considered. Several changes from the proposed schedule were agreed to informally. In order to facilitate matters the Secretary asked permission to incorporate the changes in his schedule. He then recommended the same for adoption to take effect immediately.

The report was taken up division by division and the proposed schedule as amended was adopted by a unanimous vote. (See schedule.)

The question of a home for retired teachers was taken up and the work which has already been done by Miss Jones, a motion was made by Mr. Newlon, seconded by Mr. Siders, regarding the collection of money for the erection of teachers' homes. First, that the Board of Trustees should receive and handle such funds or property. Second, that the Board of Trustees shall approve the plans for the collection of such funds. Third, that the Executive Committee shall also approve of such plans; and fourth, that pending the formation of a practical plan of procedure, a committee consisting of the chairman of the Board of Trustees, the President of the Association and the Treasurer of the Association, shall have power to act in approving plans for the receipt of gifts. Carried.

After discussing the fact that two National Education Association directors had been appointed for the State of New York, a motion was made by Mr. Newlon, seconded by Miss Adair, that the Executive Committee declare that the State of New York has no director because of the illegality of electing two directors instead of one and that the President be empowered to act for the Executive Committee to appoint a director for the State of New York and as many assistant directors as she thinks may be necessary. Carried.

Mr. Smith discussed questions concerning his duties as treasurer and asked for information. Miss Adair explained present procedure. The Secretary was authorized to get legal advice on the points raised by Treasurer Smith.

A motion was then made to adjourn. Carried. A meeting of the Board of Trustees followed.

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary*.

MARY MCSKIMMON, *President*.

Washington, D. C., February 20, 1926

A meeting of the Executive Committee was held in the conference room, headquarters building, Washington, D. C., Saturday forenoon and afternoon, February 20, 1926. The meeting opened at 9:30 o'clock with all members of the committee and all members of the Board of Trustees answering to roll call.

The chairman, Miss McSkimmon, called attention to the minutes of the October meeting in the hands of members. A motion was made by Mr. Smith to adopt the minutes as prepared by the Secretary. Seconded by Miss Adair. Carried.

Funds from sesquicentennial authorities—The Secretary was authorized to pay bills for printing and sending out the leaflets, "Liberty Bell Rings Again," and to receive and enter on the books the \$1200 appropriated for that purpose by the sesquicentennial authorities.

He was authorized also to receive and pay out in the same way the funds appropriated by the sesquicentennial authorities for preparing and distributing the pageants to carry the sesquicentennial celebration to the people of the nation.

Relationships—A motion was made by Mr. Newlon that the President and Secretary arrange for a conference of the Executive Committee and members of association of State Secretaries at some time during the convention on questions of mutual interest. Seconded by Mr. Smith. Carried.

Revolving fund—Mr. Newlon moved that the revolving fund be increased from \$15,000 to \$30,000. Seconded by Miss Adair. Carried; the Board of Trustees concurring in this action.

Borrowing funds—The Secretary presented the following recommendation on the matter of borrowing funds:

It will be necessary to borrow funds to tide over the summer months when the weekly receipts are low. It may be necessary to borrow \$10,000 to be used at the annual meeting on the payment of a part of the expenses of delegates. Hence it may seem best to take at this time action similar to that taken at the Indianapolis meeting last year.

The following is the form made out by the attorney of the Continental Trust Company:

"RESOLVED, that Mary McSkimmon, President, or after July 3 her successor in office, and J. W. Crabtree, Secretary of the National Education Association of the United States, or either of them, be and are hereby authorized and empowered to borrow from time to time as may be needed during the year 1926, for the uses and purposes of said Association, a sum or sums from the Continental Trust Company of Washington not exceeding in amount \$25,000 at any one time, and execute and deliver to the Trust Company the note or notes of said National Education Association of the United States, and pledge as collateral security for the payment of aforementioned loans, all of the income arising from the securities now held by said Continental Trust Company as part of the permanent fund of the National Education Association of the United States, this resolution to remain in full force and effect until revoked by proper order of this Board."

"It is further unanimously RESOLVED, that for value received the National Education Association of the United States of America does hereby assign and set over unto the Continental Trust Company, of the District of Columbia, all its right, title and interest in and to the income arising from the permanent fund now held by said Continental Trust Company as trustee, said income to be applied on account of the payment of principal and interest of such note or notes as may be given by said Association to said Trust Company in evidence of loans now owing or hereafter to be made, this resolution to remain in full force and effect until revoked by proper order of this Board."

Mr. Newlon moved the adoption of the resolution. Seconded by Mr. Siders. Carried.

Dr. Wood's bill—Moved by Mr. Newlon that Dr. Wood's bill for \$111.57 for expenses in attending a meeting of his committee be allowed. Seconded by Miss Adair. Carried.

Homes for retired teachers—After hearing a report from Miss Jones on the progress of the work for a home for retired teachers, a committee was appointed consisting of Mr. Siders, Miss Jones, and Mr. Newlon to prepare recommendations for the consideration of the committee.

The following statement was read and ordered a part of the records of the meeting. It was presented by the Board of Trustees.

February 1, 1926.

J. W. CRABTREE, Esq.,
Sect'y, National Education Association,
1201 16th Street N. W., Washington, D. C.

Dear Mr. Crabtree:

I have your favor of January 22, 1926, in which you ask for an opinion on the following questions in re the Charter and Bylaws of the Association.

- I. Can the Association, under its Charter, have an Assistant Treasurer? Is it proper for the Board of Trustees to appoint such assistant and assign duties?

Answer to the above:

I am of the opinion that, as it plainly appears by the Charter and Bylaws of the Association, that its funds are under the general control of the Board of Trustees, that said Board has the power, if the same be necessary to more effectually administer the funds of the Association, to appoint an officer, who should be called or styled as "Assistant to the Treasurer," and I am further of the opinion that the said Board would have power to assign or affix the duties of such an assistant.

- II. Can the Board of Trustees arrange for the new treasurer to assume his duties immediately following his election?

Answer to question No. II:

I am of the opinion, that under Article 2, Section 2 of the Bylaws of the Association, the Board of Trustees can arrange for the new Treasurer to enter upon his duties immediately following his election; but he, of course handles no funds until he has given the required bond.

- III. Has the Board of Trustees the authority to fix the bonds of the Secretary, Treasurer, Assistant Treasurer, and others who handle the funds of the Association?

Answer to the above:

I am of the opinion that, as it appears by Article 3, Section 6, of the Bylaws of the Association, that the Board of Trustees shall require of the Secretary and Treasurer bonds in such amount as it (the board) may determine, and it appears that the Trustees by the Charter and Bylaws, have the general control of the funds of the Association, that said Board have the authority, and would be its duty, to require similar bonds from the Assistant Treasurer and all others who handle the funds of the Association.

IV. Is our system of voucher receipts with the bills in the vaults at Washington proper protection for the Treasurer who lives elsewhere? The Treasurer now records amounts in his books and sends bills to Washington for safe keeping and also because it is necessary often for the office to refer to back bills.

Answer to question IV:

Of course the aforesaid question is a matter of administrative detail of the Association's finances, and if the plan at present in operation has been as before shown by experience to be for the best interest of the Association, I am of the opinion that it should be continued. It is certainly proper that all voucher receipts of payments of the Association, through its proper officer, should be at the headquarters of the Association.

Respectfully submitted,

(Signed) C. ALBERT WHITE,
Attorney at Law, Washington, D. C.

At this point a motion was passed to adjourn for lunch and to meet again in same room at 2:30 o'clock in the afternoon.

Saturday afternoon, February 20, 1926, 2:30 o'clock

After the recess for lunch the committee met at 2:30 o'clock as planned with all members of the committee and all members of the Board of Trustees present.

Kindergarten department—A motion was made by Mr. Siders to appropriate \$200 for use of the Kindergarten Department. Seconded by Mr. Smith. Carried.

Bill of the National American Council—Dr. Strayer reported in a communication that he had been sent as a delegate of the National Education Association to attend a meeting of a conference of Inter-Racial Council under the auspices of the National American Council and that the associations participating in the conference had been requested to each pay its share of a deficit in the expenses. A motion was passed to pay not to exceed fifty dollars on the recommendation of Dr. Strayer.

Teachers' home—The committee appointed during the forenoon session was called on to report. The following resolution was then read:

RESOLVED, that the President of the Association, the Chairman of the Board of Trustees, and the Secretary be authorized to accept funds from foundations or from private individuals for the purpose of making a survey and study of the best methods by which the National Education Association can finance and conduct Homes for Retired Teachers, such grants to be accepted under the following conditions:

1. The President of the National Education Association, with the approval of the Executive Committee, shall designate the investigator or investigators who are to make the survey.

2. The executive officers of the National Education Association shall organize and direct the survey subject to a proper audit of all funds.

3. Such funds shall be received and disbursed by the Treasurer and other officers of the Association in the same manner as all other funds of the Association are handled.

Miss Adair moved to adopt the resolution. Mr. Newlon seconded the motion. Carried.

The committee then presented the following statement and requested its adoption:

The National Education Association has seriously undertaken the consideration of the plans for establishing homes for aged and retired teachers. The need has been demonstrated, but there are other problems involved, including the financing of such an undertaking, the location of the homes, methods of conducting homes

happily and successfully, eligibility for admission, and the relationship of the management of the homes to the official boards of the National Education Association.

All these problems are now being investigated and studied by the Executive Committee of the National Education Association and will be reported upon to the Delegate Assembly at the National Education Association at Philadelphia in July, 1926.

Organized activity for raising funds will not begin until after the study now being made has progressed sufficiently to make possible a definite statement of the amount required and of the method of administration and other problems already stated.

Several voluntary contributions have already been made by individuals. The committee realizes that the interest and enthusiasm of teachers regarding the establishment of homes for retired teachers made them desire to express their feeling by immediate contributions of money. These will be accepted and placed under the care of the Board of Trustees of the National Education Association as a separate fund for National Education Association Homes for Retired Teachers.

It was moved by Mr. Newlon to adopt the recommendation. Seconded by Mr. Siders. Carried.

On motion an adjournment was taken to Tuesday morning at 9:00 o'clock.

Tuesday morning, February 23, 1926, 9:00 o'clock

The meeting was called to order Tuesday morning at 9:00 o'clock at the Association headquarters' building by Mr. Newlon, the vicepresident. All members except Miss McSkimmon were present. Members of the Board of Trustees were present on invitation.

Relationships—Mr. Doudna of the association of secretaries, and Mr. Walker, chairman of the committee on coinclusive membership, were present and on invitation each one spoke on the question of improving the relations between the state and national associations.

At this point Miss McSkimmon entered the room and took the chair. After general discussion it was decided informally that the President would appoint a committee to meet with a committee of the secretaries of state associations, these committees to report recommendations for the consideration of the executive committee.

Relocation of offices—The Secretary recommended a reassignment of rooms at the headquarters building for the Research, Membership, Business, and Administrative Divisions. He recommended that the Research Division be assigned to the entire fourth floor of the main building, the typing in the Business Division to be assigned to the entire third floor of the annex, the Division of Membership to be assigned the additional space the east half of the second floor of the annex, the Administrative Division the west half of the second floor of the annex, and that the Business Division occupy all the first floor of the annex except that the National Association of Parent Teachers be provided with space in the south end in place of what it now uses on the fourth floor.

He explained that since these changes necessitate the changing of partitions and other expenses the matter would need to go to the Board of Trustees also. He also recommended making an entrance from the corridor on the first floor main building to the large room to the north and to equip the room for a conference room or for offices. He recommended the completion of the arrangements for heating the entire building by hot water.

A motion was made by Mr. Smith to approve of the relocation of offices and the expenses connected therewith subject to the approval of the Board of Trustees. Seconded by Miss Adair. Carried.

All matters requiring financial outlay on the building were referred to the Board of Trustees.

Life membership—The Secretary made the following recommendations concerning Life Membership:

1. To permit active members to pay dues for life in ten equal annual instalments, paying \$10 in cash and giving notes for each of the other payments, the interest being at the rate of 5 percent.

2. To present each life member with a gold pin, the design on the pin being an adaptation of that adopted in 1905 and used on the official seal of the Association.

3. To authorize the Secretary to secure through the State Superintendent, the Secretary of the State Association, and through other reliable sources, from 100 to 500 names of active members whose work, as teachers, principals, supervisors, superintendents, professors or presidents, merit special recognition and to send to each a life membership invitation in the name of the Executive Committee.

4. To establish an "In Memoriam" membership, charging the same fee as for a life membership. Where one has been prominent as a leader in education up to the time of his death, his family would be pleased to have his name in the "In Memoriam" list.

Educational building suggestions—1. To declare itself in favor of erecting as soon as funds are available, a building of five or six stories on the four lots east of the present headquarters building, which will be in keeping with and connected with the present building, having in mind a completed structure which can be used as headquarters for the larger kindred organizations. There are many such organizations in Washington. The rent from that building would add to the income of the Association.

2. To authorize the Secretary to make a special life membership drive during March, April, May, and June, and to report at the Philadelphia meeting on the probability of being able to raise funds through life memberships for the proposed educational temple or building.

A motion was made by Mr. Newlon to adopt the recommendations except item 4. Seconded by Mr. Siders. Carried. The Secretary was advised not to use the term temple in mentioning the proposed building but to refer to it as an educational building.

Information for delegates early—A request came from Miss Moorhead, president of the City Teachers' Club of Los Angeles, for information on business to be taken up in the Representative Assembly before the meeting so that teachers might give special attention to important questions. Miss Adair moved that the Secretary give out this information in advance as far as possible. Seconded by Mr. Newlon. Carried.

Round-Trip Rates—The Secretary was instructed to conduct and organize nationwide effort for a lower round-trip rate and more satisfactory concessions from railroads for the annual meetings of the Association. This work is to begin immediately after the Philadelphia meeting.

Reelection of Miss Williams—It was moved by Mr. Siders to reelect Charl O. Williams on the plan of indefinite tenure same as other directors of the staff. Seconded by Miss Adair. The Chairman announced that the reelection of Miss Williams was by a unanimous vote.

Salaries—After discussing the question of allowing increases in salary to certain members of the staff, and after deciding matters informally, the President and Secretary were authorized to put the same in form for the committee.

The following represents the action that was taken:

Ratifying changes previously made—

Gerald Saunders' salary	\$1500.
Ida M. Fowler, assigned permanent roll, salary.....	1152.
Margaret Sullivan, assigned permanent roll, salary.....	1092.
Virginia Liles, assigned permanent roll, salary.....	960.
Elizabeth Donelson, assigned permanent roll, division of accounts, salary	960.

Salary of Miss Wright, who is out on account of sickness, is to be continued to the next meeting of the committee.

Changes in salaries—Martha Lavisson's salary changed from \$1308 to \$1332 beginning October 1. Other adjustments in salaries postponed to next meeting of the committee.

The volume of proceedings—On the basis of competitive bids, the contract for printing and distributing the Volume of Proceedings for 1926 was awarded to Judd and Detweiler.

Seattle—Mr. Newlon moved that the President and Secretary be authorized to investigate conditions at Seattle for the next meeting of the Association so as to have definite information at hand for the board of directors at the Philadelphia meeting. Seconded by Miss Adair. Carried.

It was understood that Los Angeles and a few other places asking for the meeting should be investigated also.

Committee on international relations—Mr. Newlon moved that an appropriation of \$500 be made for the Committee of International Relations. Seconded by Mr. Smith. Carried. On the explanation of Mr. Siders that there was only \$300 left in available funds the Secretary advised to see whether the committee could not get along with \$300.

On motion the President of the National Council was authorized to have a forty-eight page pamphlet printed for the summer meeting.

On motion the meeting adjourned. The President was authorized to call a meeting of the executive committee at any time she thinks advisable.

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary*,

MARY MCSKIMMON, *President*.

Saturday morning, June 26, 1926, 9:00 o'clock

There was a meeting of the Executive Committee, Saturday forenoon, June 26, 1926, at nine o'clock, in the Secretary's office in the Foyer, of the Academy of Music, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

The following members of the Committee responded to roll call: Miss Adair, Dr. Smith, Superintendent Siders, Superintendent Newlon, and Miss McSkimmon, chairman. There were present on invitation, Doctor Gwinn, Mr. Pearse, and Doctor Finegan, members of the Board of Trustees. There were no absentees of the Executive Committee or the Board of Trustees.

Minutes—The minutes of the meeting of the Executive Committee at the Washington convention, February 20, 1926, were read. Attention was called that the motion to elect Miss Williams was made by Mr. Siders and not by Mr. Newlon. The Secretary was instructed to make the correction. Mr. Siders moved to adopt the minutes as corrected. Seconded by Miss Adair. Carried.

Board of Trustees and Budget Committee—Mr. Siders, chairman of the Board of Trustees and chairman of the Budget Committee, reported that the printed copies of the report of the Board of Trustees had not yet arrived, but he gave a summary of the report. He asked that no action be taken until the printed report could be in the hands of the Committee. He made a similar report for the Budget Committee. He stated that there would be a meeting of the Budget Committee during the afternoon and that a report could be made on Monday or Tuesday.

Treasurer's Report—Next the treasurer, Henry Lester Smith, presented his report, but not having the printed copies, he asked that the matter of approval go over to the next meeting of the Committee.

Life membership—A motion was made by Miss Adair to instruct the Secretary to continue the effort to get the entire profession at work on its problems and to continue the work for life memberships. Seconded by Mr. Smith. Carried.

New York Delegates—Miss Jones, who had just entered the room, made it known that New York City principals who were delegates were not permitted to

attend the Philadelphia meeting because of a ruling of the Board of Education. After discussing the matter, a motion was made by Dr. Finegan that the Executive Committee wire the city superintendent of schools, New York City, and the president of the board of Education expressing the hope that arrangements could be made to permit officers of the Association and delegates to attend the Philadelphia meeting. Seconded by Mr. Siders. Carried.

The Committee on Committees—A report was next made by the chairman of the Committee on Committees, Jesse H. Newlon, who explained that the Committee had not yet finished its report, but that it would be ready to report at the next meeting of the Executive Committee. He indicated the principles which have been adopted to guide the committee in its decisions. He requested that action on the report be withheld until the next meeting of the Executive Committee.

National Congress of Parents and Teachers—A motion was made to reduce the rental for the National Congress of Parents and Teachers from \$175 to \$150 a month as a result of taking over part of the space which had been used by that organization. The motion was seconded and carried.

Policy concerning commercial exhibits—The Secretary then recommended the adoption of the following as a statement of the policy concerning commercial exhibits:

"Statement of policy concerning commercial exhibits—During the past two years there has been some misunderstanding as to the policy of the National Education Association concerning exhibits. The following statement has been prepared to prevent further confusion and is recommended for the approval of the Board of Directors:

Reasons for having exhibits—The National Education Association arranges for educational exhibits to accommodate superintendents, members of boards of education, and others interested in keeping abreast of the best in materials and appliances for the schools. The chief benefits come from preparing members to give better advice to school authorities for purchasing school supplies which are, as a rule, to be paid for out of public funds. The Association does not believe that it would be compatible with the interests of the profession or the public school welfare to place the control of these exhibits in the hands of commercial interests. Would such control be compatible even with the interests of the firms to be represented in the exhibits?

Suggestions welcomed—Control to be with Association—The democracy of the Association does not permit its discouraging exhibitors from organizing for fellowship and cooperative purposes. It welcomes, and should always welcome, suggestions from individuals or organizations for the improvement of the service. Without this help the service itself would suffer materially. It ought to be clearly understood, however, by officers of organizations that their suggestions and demands can only be accepted on the same conditions as advice coming from other exhibitors and from other sources. It ought to be understood that the Association itself claims the right and responsibility to pass on such questions as these: Where shall the convention be held? Who shall be permitted to exhibit? How shall space be allotted? Who shall be in charge of the exhibit? What charge shall be made for space? And, in general, what rules and regulations shall control the exhibits? It could under no circumstances pass this responsibility over to commercial control.

"The Association cannot view without apprehension a form of cooperation which would seem to reflect on the motives and policies of the Association. It would regret that any organization would feel the necessity of creating a fund to protect exhibitors from the mistakes of the Association or to consider it to be necessary to be more critical than cooperative in its attitude.

Fundamental Relationships—These are among the considerations which the Association considers fundamental in all its relationships with individuals or with

organizations composed of the manufacturers and salesmen of school supplies. This statement we believe to be representative of the policy of the Association, a policy which is in harmony with the wishes of those who exhibit regularly at the conventions."

A motion was made by Mr. Newlon to adopt the report. Seconded by Mr. Siders and carried by a unanimous vote.

Importance of departmental dues—A motion was made by Mr. Siders to instruct the Secretary to urge the importance for all larger departments to arrange for departmental dues. Seconded by Mr. Newlon. Carried.

Charts for departments—A motion was made by Mr. Siders to authorize the Secretary to prepare charts showing the organization and work of each department. It was explained that this should be done under the direction of the officers of the department. Seconded by Mr. Smith. Carried.

Spelling—A motion was made by Mr. Newlon asking the Board of Directors to authorize the Executive Committee to pass on all questions of spelling and style for the publications of the Association. It was generally believed that the Association should recognize the twelve simplified spelling words used for many years by the Association. Seconded by Miss Adair. Carried.

A motion was then made to adjourn to meet again Tuesday afternoon at 2:00 o'clock. The motion was carried.

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary*,
MARY MCSKIMMON, *President*.

Tuesday afternoon, June 29, 1926, 2:00 o'clock

There was an adjourned meeting of the Executive Committee, Tuesday afternoon, June 29, 1926, at 2:00 o'clock, in the East Room at the Hollingsworth School, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. All members of the Executive Committee were present.

A motion was made to change the item, general office expense, to general headquarters' expenses, in the financial statement of the Association.

Report Board of Trustees—W. R. Siders, presented the report of the Board of Trustees and recommended approval as printed. A motion was made to adopt the recommendations instructing that the report be presented to the Board of Directors. Seconded. Carried.

A motion was made by Mr. Siders, seconded by Mr. Smith that hereafter only the auditor's report be printed; separate report for the Board of Trustees was unnecessary as all items were included in the report as it comes from the auditors. The motion was carried.

Report of Treasurer—Mr. Smith, the treasurer, moved that the report of the treasurer be accepted and recommended to the Board of Directors and Representative Assembly for adoption. Seconded by Mr. Newlon. Carried.

The Budget—Mr. Siders, Chairman of the Budget Committee, went over the budget recommendations in detail. He indicated the changes which the committee had made in the budget presented at the previous meeting. He stated that the committee had not been able to distribute the amounts to committees not having been able to get in touch with the committee chairmen and recommended that the committee secure permission from the Representative Assembly to distribute these amounts. He recommended that the report be accepted and presented to the Board of Directors and Representative Assembly for adoption. A motion was made by Mr. Newlon to adopt the report and recommendation. Seconded by Miss Adair. Carried.

Retired Teachers Home—A request was made by Miss Jones for \$500 for the committee on the Home for Retired Teachers. The request was held over for the consideration of the Committee if authorized to make committee appropriations.

Exhibits World Conference—A motion was made by Mr. Siders that Mr. Allan

be permitted to care for the commercial exhibits for the World Federation at the Toronto meeting next summer, to receive compensation for time and expenses from the World Federation. The motion was seconded by Miss Adair. Carried.

It was recommended that the Executive Committee include in its report to the Representative Assembly the recommendation that the Committees on Resolutions and Necrology report at the next annual convention of the Association, and that hereafter these committees be allowed an entire year for the preparation of their reports.

It was also recommended that one half of the increase in the income from membership dues of 1926-27 over 1925-26 be turned into the permanent fund.

On motion the meeting adjourned.

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary*,
MARY MCSKIMMON, *President*.

Friday afternoon, July 2, 1926, 4:00 o'clock

The vicepresident, Mary McSkimmon, called the meeting to order on Friday, July 2, at 4:00 o'clock. It was found that there were only two members present, Mr. Siders and Miss McSkimmon. Mr. Smith, the treasurer, was sick at the hospital. Mr. Lamkin had not yet been notified of his election. President Blair, not knowing beforehand of the meeting, had made his arrangements to leave on the train at 3:30 o'clock.

A motion was passed to adjourn to meet again on call of the President.

The Secretary was instructed to secure a vote by mail on emergency matters, but to hold all other matters until the next meeting of the Executive Committee.

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary*.
MARY MCSKIMMON, *Vicepresident*.

MEETING OF THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, Monday, June 29, 1926, 10:30 o'clock

A meeting of the Board of Directors was held in the East Room of the Hollingsworth School, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, Monday, June 28, 1926 at 10:30 o'clock. The meeting was called to order by the president, Mary McSkimmon, with more than half the states represented in the roll call.

It was understood that another meeting would be called after the reports of the treasurer and Board of Trustees were in print.

A tentative report was made by each, the treasurer, H. L. Smith, the Chairman of the Board of Trustees, Mr. Siders, and by the chairman of the Budget Committee, Mr. Siders. No action was taken on these reports on the advice of those making reports as the same would be in printed form for later action.

A motion was passed to seat those who were representing state directors who could not attend the convention.

Mr. Newlon explained the principles used in formulating the report of the Committee on Committees, of which he was chairman. He was authorized to present the report to the Representative Assembly with the approval of the Board of Directors.

The Secretary presented his report calling particular attention to his recommendations in the last page of the report. A special committee was ordered to be appointed to report at the next meeting of the Board of Directors on these items.

The report of the Committee on all-inclusive membership was made by the chairman, Mr. Walker, and after discussion the resolutions in the report were referred to the special committee to pass on the recommendations of the Secretary.

On motion the report of the Budget Committee was ordered printed in time for the next Board of Directors meeting. The motion was made by Mr. Walker. Seconded by Miss Russum. Carried.

A motion was made to have Mr. Walker's report printed in the October JOURNAL. Seconded. Carried.

Moved by Mr. Hunter and seconded by Mr. Pearse that the special committee on recommendations of the Secretary be directed to work out a plan for nominating the director by state associations, for equalizing delegate representation and for equalizing affiliation dues. Carried.

A motion was made by S. L. Smith for the appointment of a committee to report on plans for studying the problems of colored schools. Seconded. Carried. The chairman then appointed the following: S. L. Smith, W. T. B. Williams, N. C. Newbold, and William W. Sanders.

The chairman then announced the appointment of the special committee as follows: S. L. Smith of Tennessee, Chairman; Fred M. Hunter, California; J. H. Hickman, West Virginia; T. J. Walker, Missouri; Cornelia S. Adair, Virginia; Olive M. Jones, New York; and R. J. Kiefer, Ohio. She announced the following as the Audit Committee: Mr. Oberholtzer, Chairman, Julia E. Sullivan, F. E. Reynolds, E. M. Carter and Arthur H. Chamberlain.

A motion was passed giving the Executive Committee full authority to make rules for spelling and on style for the publications of the Association. The Executive Committee was declared responsible for all policies and plans for the JOURNAL and other publications. A motion was then passed to adjourn to meet Wednesday afternoon June 30 at 1:30 o'clock.

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary.*

MARY MCSKIMMON, *President.*

Wednesday afternoon, June 30, 1926, 1:30 oclock

An adjourned meeting of the board of directors was held Wednesday, June 30, 1926 at 1:30 o'clock in the Hollingsworth School, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, with directors representing 34 states in attendance. The President being detained for an address before the Rotary Club, the Secretary called the meeting to order, requesting that some one be elected to serve as Chairman in the absence of the President. Mr. Pearse was nominated and unanimously elected.

Treasurer's Report—The Chairman explaining that the treasurer, H. L. Smith, was sick and in the hospital requested Walter R. Siders to present the treasurer's report. After presenting the report in detail explaining that it had been approved by the official auditors of the Association and verified by the special audit committee, moved the adoption of the report. The motion was seconded and carried.

Report of the Board of Trustees—The chairman then called on Mr. Siders, Chairman of the board of trustees, to present the report of the board of trustees. After explaining the various sections of the printed report and after answering questions he asked what action the directors desired to take. A motion was made to recommend the adoption of the report to the Representative Assembly. Seconded and carried.

Budget Committee Report—Mr. Siders being also chairman of the budget committee was requested to present the Report of the Executive Committee including the budget. He read portions of the printed report and answered questions. A motion was then made to present the report as printed to the Representative Assembly with the recommendation that it be adopted. Seconded and carried.

Negro Education—The following report was made for the special committee on education problems in the colored schools by S. L. Smith of Tennessee:

"We, your special committee on educational problems in colored schools, beg leave to report as follows:

1. "We recommend that the National Education Association create a committee of ten on problems in negro education, this committee to include at least three state superintendents of education chosen from different sections of the country, at least two or three women, and three or four negro educational leaders, those to be chosen from members of this Association.

2. "That the President of the National Education Association be instructed to send a message of greetings and goodwill, expressing the desire to cooperate with

the National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools, which meets July 28 to 30, 1926, in Hot Springs, Arkansas."

After discussion a motion was made by Miss Adair of Virginia, to approve of the report and to recommend its adoption by the Representative Assembly. Seconded by D. W. Parratt of Utah and carried.

Recommendations of the Secretary—R. J. Kiefer of Ohio was called upon for the report of the special committee which had been appointed to consider the recommendations in the report of the Secretary. After explanations he read the following report:

To the Board of Directors of the National Education Association: Your committee, appointed to consider the recommendation of Secretary Crabtree in relation to the nomination of the State National Education Association Director, and to the question of changing the present varying ratio followed in the election of state and local delegates of the Representative Assembly of the National Education Association would recommend, first,

That such change in the bylaws be made as will permit the State Director for the National Education Association to be placed in nomination by the State Representative Assembly in states having such a body and by the State Teachers Associations in states not having the representative assembly, in such a manner as they may determine, and second,

That in the matter of the apportionment of delegates to the Representative Assembly of the National Education Association because of the conflicting interests involved no proposal could at this time be agreed upon for immediate action even of temporary character and your committee therefore recommends that this problem together with the entire subject of representatives, election, apportionment, and affiliation fees of delegates, be made the basis of an intensive study by a committee of from seven to fifteen representatives from the groups involved, be appointed by the President of the Association to report a definite plan at the meeting of the National Education Association to be held a year hence, and third,

That the report of the committee on coinclusive membership be printed and distributed for study and referred to this committee for a report a year hence.

Signers—S. L. SMITH, *Chairman*
CORNELIA ADAIR
R. J. KIEFER
FRED M. HUNTER
OLIVE M. JONES.

He then moved the approval of the report and the recommendation that it be adopted by the Representative Assembly. The motion was seconded by S. L. Smith of Tennessee. After discussion the Chairman stated the vote would be taken on the first proposition in the report. The vote was taken. The Chairman announced that all members voted in the affirmative.

The second proposition in the report was taken up for discussion. It was made plain that the committee to be appointed should give consideration to the report on coinclusive membership and all questions connected directly or indirectly in any way with delegate representation and affiliation dues. Charles B. Dyke of New Jersey then made a motion to adopt the second part of the committee report. The motion was seconded and carried.

It was then moved that the report as a whole be adopted. Seconded and carried.

The Executive Committee was then instructed to present the report of the Board of Directors to the Representative Assembly. A motion was then made to adjourn. Seconded and carried.

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary*.
MARY MCSKIMMON, *President*.

MEETING NEW BOARD OF DIRECTORS

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, July 2, 1926

A meeting of the new Board of Directors was held in the East Room of the Hollingsworth School, Friday, July 2, 1926, at 2 o'clock. The meeting was called to order by the new President, Superintendent F. G. Blair, with nearly all states represented.

A motion was made by Mr. Newlon to accept the resignations of those directors not present and to seat those who are present to represent them. Seconded by Mr. Smith. Carried.

Election of Trustee—The Chairman announced that the next order of business was that of electing a member of the Board of Trustees to succeed C. G. Pearse whose term has expired. Mr. Pearse taking the floor requested his name be not presented for reelection. He stated that he had been honored by membership on the Board of Trustees for many years. Now that he was not engaged directly in school work he wished the position to go to some one who is so engaged.

Mr. Kiefer of Ohio nominated Superintendent R. G. Jones of Cleveland. Mr. Saunders of Virginia in placing Miss Adair in nomination called attention to the fact that there would not be a woman on the Board of Trustees unless Miss Adair were elected. Miss Jessie Gray of Pennsylvania seconded the nomination of Miss Adair. The nominations were closed. The vote was taken by ballot. Mr. Pearse and Mr. Lefler were appointed tellers. Miss Adair received 31 votes and Mr. Jones 8. The Chairman then announced the election of Miss Adair.

At this point Mr. Blair, the chairman, stated that not having known that he would preside at this meeting he had arranged to take a 3:30 train. He asked to be excused and called the first vice-president, Miss McSkimmon, to the chair.

Election of Members of the Executive Committee—Miss McSkimmon declared the next order of business to be the election of a member of the Executive Committee to succeed Miss Adair. Mr. Walker, of Missouri, placed Uel W. Lamkin in nomination. Mr. Wannamaker, of South Carolina, placed in nomination Kate V. Wofford, and Miss McPherson nominated Julia E. Sullivan. The nominations were closed. A ballot was taken resulting as follows: Mr. Lamkin 24, Miss Wofford 9, and Miss Sullivan 7. The Chairman thereupon declared Mr. Lamkin to be member-elect of the Executive Committee.

Members of the Council—The Chairman announced the next order of business to be the election of members of the council to fill vacancies.

A motion was passed reelecting Mary D. Bradford, Arthur H. Chamberlain, J. W. Crabtree, David R. Felmy, Elizabeth Hall, David B. Johnson, John R. Kirk, Charles McKenny, Joseph Rosier and H. Lester Smith. A motion was then passed to elect Superintendent W. F. Webster, of Minneapolis, to succeed Helen C. Putnam.

Location for the Next Meeting—The Chairman announced the next order of business to be the selection of the location for the annual convention of the Association. Short addresses were made in recommending Seattle and Atlanta. After a number of speeches were made for each side, a motion by Mr. Newlon seconded by Mr. Pearse and passed, a vote of preference was taken resulting in a large majority for Seattle. The Chairman announced that the whole matter would be left to the Executive Committee, taking into consideration the vote of preference by the Board of Directors.

For 1928. Superintendent Webster then took the floor to press the claims of Minneapolis for 1928. He promised each teacher who would attend, a lake. Mr. Dyke then presented the claims of Atlantic City for a future meeting of the Association. Mr. Cary, of Hawaii, urged that a conference on education be held in Hawaii immediately following the Seattle meeting.

New Departments—The Secretary next presented the report of the committee on the Revision of Departments, as follows:

To the Board of Directors:

Your committee on Revision of Departments reports that it has had under consideration during the year various petitions, requests, and recommendations for the consolidation of existing departments and the organization of additional departments.

As the result of this consideration of these matters we recommend:

First—That the Kindergarten and Primary Departments be reorganized as the Kindergarten-Primary Department.

Second—That a department of lip-reading be authorized. This will be a small department but it is composed of very earnest people who have presented a petition signed by three hundred members of the National Association. They have held successful conferences for three years. Having fully complied with the conditions set up in the bylaws for the organization of departments we recommend that this petition be granted and the department authorized.

Third—That the petitions for the organization of departments of Art and Nature Study be received. That the petitioners be authorized to hold conferences for three succeeding years in connection with the meetings of the National Association, and that the petitioners be encouraged to expect a favorable action if they are able to comply with the conditions in the bylaws.

Fourth—Several petitions have been received for the organization of a Department of Higher Instruction. We look with favor upon the organization of such a department, but recommend that action be deferred at this time until the plans for such an organization shall become more clearly defined.

Fifth—We recommend that the bylaws be suspended and that the directors authorize the organization of a Department of Junior High School Principals which shall include not only principals, but all those directly engaged in the administration of Junior High Schools, including those connected with the development of the work in colleges of education.

Sixth—We recommend that a committee composed of the chairman of the Committee on the Revision of Departments, Carroll G. Pearse, and the chairman of the Board of Trustees, Frederick M. Hunter, together with the President and Secretary of the National Association, be authorized to confer with the officers of the National Association of Secondary Principals for the purpose of devising a plan whereby an association of the Department of High School Principals of the National Association may be organized.

Seventh—We recommend that the committee be continued for the ensuing year to make a further study of the subject in order that a clear-cut and definite policy may be adopted for the future, regarding department organizations, sections, conferences and allied organizations meeting with the National Association.

Respectfully submitted for the committee,

RANDALL J. CONDON, *Chairman.*

A question was raised as to the wisdom of creating a department of Junior High School Principals but after discussion it was agreed that there should be such a department.

A motion was made to adopt the report. It was seconded. A motion made to amend omitting the department of lip-reading was not seconded. There was prolonged discussion. The vote was taken and declared carried.

A motion was made, seconded, and carried to authorize the Executive Committee to act for the Board of Directors between sessions in carrying out the recommendations of the Representative Assembly and in attending to any due business properly coming before the committee.

A motion was then passed to accept the resignation of all representing regularly elected directors and reinstating all who were elected by the Representative Assembly and the meeting adjourned.

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary.*

FRANCIS G. BLAIR, *President.*

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS

GEORGE D. STRAYER, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, TEACHERS COLLEGE
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK CITY, CHAIRMAN

Education Bill—The welfare of the children now enroled in the schools of the United States is dependent upon our ability to make available to boards of education, to superintendents of schools, and to teachers throughout the nation the results of current practice, of experiments wherever they are conducted, and of the results of scientific investigation. The federal government has long recognized its obligation in the field of scientific inquiry and has promoted the welfare of all the people through the activities of the Departments of Agriculture, Commerce, and Labor. We hold that economy and efficiency demand that the activities of the federal government dealing with education be consolidated in a Department of Education under the leadership of a Secretary with a seat in the President's Cabinet. We urge that adequate support be provided for this Department in order that it may conduct such inquiries and disseminate such information as will make for the highest degree of efficiency in all of our schools. We know that this service can be rendered without in any way interfering with the constitutional right of the several states to control, administer, and supervise their own schools. We, therefore, urge the Congress to pass the Curtis-Reed Bill which embodies the program which this Association has consistently advocated throughout its history.

Child labor—The National Education Association, in reaffirming its stand on child labor, urges the passage of such legislation as will make exploitation impossible and will assure protection to the children of America.

Teaching respect for law—We believe that the permanent prosperity and happiness of a democratic people are dependent in large degree upon development of a high type of character among all the youth of the land. We hold that one of the chief purposes of the schools is to develop such a standard of character. We deplore the prevalent tide of crime, lawlessness, disregard and disrespect of law, and failure to enforce law as debauching America's youth and undermining the foundation of the republic. We call upon teachers everywhere to teach and practice respect for all law, as a chief purpose of education. We call upon the citizenship of the nation to exercise at all times its full right of franchise. We call upon parents to assume their full measure of responsibility for rearing and training of children into the practices and duties of citizenship.

Illiteracy—We reaffirm our endorsement of the movement to wipe out illiteracy by 1930 and urge the allied educational forces of the National Education Association to join with this effort for early liberation of millions of our countrymen from the bondage of ignorance.

Literacy tests—We believe that the reading and writing of English understandingly should be made a qualification for admission to citizenship of the foreign-born and also a qualification for voting.

Obscene literature, pictures, and tokens—The Congress of the United States has denied the privilege of the mails to obscene and indecent literature, pictures, and tokens, yet such articles reach the youth of our land through various other means of transportation. This Association again recommends that its legislative committee memorialize the Congress of the United States to enact legislation prohibiting the transportation in interstate commerce of all such literature, pictures, and token, as are now denied the privilege of the mails.

The status of the teacher—We note with pleasure the great improvement in facilities for teacher training, the increase in professional requirements demanded by standardizing and state agencies, the longer school tenure, and the many successful pension and retirement laws. These all help to raise teaching to the dignity of a real profession. They also tend to bring into the teaching group the most promising young men and women. We urge teachers everywhere to respond to these improved conditions in a wholehearted way. Good as the conditions are they may be still further improved. Our task is to continue to grow and to show intelligent enthusiasm for our work. The Association recommends that administrative authorities protect teachers in their work in the classroom from attempts by outside agencies to use the school organization for the furtherance of ends not directly connected with the aims of public education.

We believe that the policy of allowing sabbatical leave for study, recreation, and recuperation should be encouraged in the various states and localities. The efficiency of our schools depends upon the health and intellectual vigor of teachers, and the public can make no better investment than to adopt those measures which will insure the maximum fitness of all members of the profession.

Financial aid—The National Education Association reaffirms its approval of the plan which will give adequate financial support to all classes of public schools. If the children of the republic are successfully to meet the ever-increasing demands of civilization, the nation, the state, or the community must supply the funds. It is the responsibility of each state to enact such legislation as will provide adequate public funds and insure an administration sufficiently effective to guarantee equality of educational opportunity to all its children.

Athletic sports—We affirm our faith in the value of competitive athletic sports. We believe that all students from the elementary grades through their last year in college should have the benefit of organized recreation. We believe that the school and college authorities should exercise full and entire control of all sports and that expenditures therefore should not be out of proportion to the costs of regular academic instruction. We urge that all high school and college athletic regulations be strictly adhered to. We believe that greater public recognition should be given distinguished achievement in scholarship so as to avoid the appearance of giving athletics first place in school life.

International peace and goodwill—We believe that international peace rests upon international goodwill, which can only exist when there is in-

ternational understanding. We recommend the World Federation of Education Associations as a potent means to help world-wide understanding. We also commend the international interchange of professors, teachers, and students. Growth of this custom will in time help to promote goodwill among all the countries making the exchanges. Each individual who has this experience in another country will return to his native land with friendships made and understandings secure. These will arm him effectively against idle and poisonous propaganda.

School lands—The settled policy of the federal government to foster education by granting to the several states large tracts of land to be used in support of their common and public schools is a wise and beneficent one. However, certain practices and rulings in recent years have so clouded and impaired the states' title to such land that it is impossible to realize the purposes intended. Therefore, we favor such legislation by the Congress of the United States as will clear the title to the lands granted to the states for the benefit of their common and public schools and will make it possible for the states to enjoy the benefits and to realize the purposes intended for the promotion of education and for the safety of the republic.

Postage rates for books—We hold that books are one of the most important influences in maintaining the morale of the American home and their general circulation is greatly to be desired. We deplore the discrimination against books in the present postal law, and urge the desirability of recommending to Congress that books be admitted to the same privileges in the mails that are granted to periodicals and magazines.

Appreciation of hospitality—We express our sincere appreciation of the many courtesies and generous hospitality extended to the members of the Association by the staff of the schools, Boy Scouts, civic organizations, public officials, and by private citizens of Philadelphia. We appreciate the service rendered to teachers and to the cause of education by the reports of our deliberation published by the local press and by leading newspapers throughout the nation. We have been able to do our work and to enjoy our sojourn in the city that gave birth to our Association because of the careful foresight and untiring effort of scores of workers who have contributed so generously to the success of our annual convention.

TREASURER'S REPORT

FROM JUNE 1, 1925, TO MAY 31, 1926

Balance Brought Forward from Treasurer's Report for Year ended May 31, 1925	\$18,555.83
Receipts:	
From Annual Meetings:	
Indianapolis Meeting	\$2,904.00
Washington Meeting	2,868.00
Carried forward.....	\$5,772.00

Brought Forward.....			\$5,772.00
	May 31, 1925	May 31, 1926	
For Account:			
Dept. of Superintendence (Net)	\$6,924.95	\$5,160.98	
Dept. of Elementary Principals (Net) ..	917.10	1,748.22	
Dept. of Adult Education (Net)		633.99	
	<u>\$7,842.05</u>	<u>\$7,543.19</u>	298.86
From Secretary's Office during Year:			5,473.14
Membership Fees.....	\$138,481.00		
Subscriptions to N. E. A. Journal	125,094.00		
Subscriptions to Research Bulletins	4,804.00		
Sale of Volumes of Proceedings.....	1,140.52		
Sale of Special Reports	4,213.99		
Sale of Research Bulletin	5,187.34		
Special Investigations (Research)	213.49		
Sale of N. E. A. Journals	253.90		
Sale of Dr. Harris' Book	210.04		
Sale of Pageant Leaflets	2,017.75		
Cash Sales of Reports and Pamphlets	2,387.74		
	<u>\$284,003.77</u>		
From Income on Permanent Fund	9,154.38		
From Commercial Exhibits (Net)	4,563.03		
From Advertising—N. E. A. Journal (Net)	70,326.83		
From Interest and Discounts Earned	297.01		
From Rentals Received	2,723.75		
From Honorariums (Field Work)	837.54		
From Sundry Income—Exchange, Etc.	822.87		
		<u>372,729.18</u>	
		<u>\$378,202.32</u>	
Disbursements:			
Board of Trustees—Expenses			\$768.79
Executive Committee:			
President (Mr. Newlon)	\$692.31		
(Miss McSkimmon)	1,074.43		
First Vice-President (Dr. Owen)	138.28		
(Mr. Newlon)	411.04		
Treasurer (Miss Adair).....	116.13		
(Dr. Smith)	203.06		
Chairman, Board of Trustees (Mr. Siders)	771.48		
Member by Election (Miss Iversen)	257.83		
(Miss Adair)	240.35		
		<u>3,904.91</u>	
		<u>\$4,673.70</u>	
Office of General Secretary:			
General Expense (Salaries, Stationery, Etc.)			19,845.15
Home Office:			
General Expense	\$311.15		
Express, Freight, and Parcel Post.....	1,181.16		
Telephone Service	2,027.93		
Telegrams (General)	144.13		
		<u>3,664.37</u>	
Carried Forward.....			28,183.22

Brought Forward.....		\$28,183.22
Repairs—Office Furniture and Fixtures	377.91	
Interest and Discounts Allowed	1,337.90	
Surety Bonds	210.00	
Insurance	92.47	
Auditing Accounts of Association	813.67	
Physical Plant—Rents, Light, Heat, Power, Janitor..	20,786.02	
		23,617.97
Institutional Expense:		
Annual Conventions:		
Departmental Expenses	\$322.24	
State Directors	400.59	
Registration Bureau	559.52	
Stenographic Service	111.47	
Publicity	1,097.90	
Printing:		
Programs	\$1,132.42	
Miscellaneous	568.40	
		1,700.82
Express and Freight	190.82	
Telephones and Telegrams	92.15	
Miscellaneous Expense (Speakers, Etc.)	1,109.70	
Representative Assembly Expense	708.27	
Badges	207.80	
Sesquicentennial Pageant Expense	1,871.01	
		\$8,372.29
Expense in Collecting Membership Dues.....	\$10,556.86	
Publicity in Anticipation of Membership.....	15,364.56	
Special Committees Appointed by the President....	130.16	
Membership—World Conference in Education.....	1,000.00	
Membership—American Council on Education.....	100.00	
N. E. A. Journal (Printing and Distribution)	92,687.66	
Volume of Proceedings (1925)	8,458.22	
Research Bulletin (Printing and Distribution)	6,867.12	
		143,536.87
Special Appropriations for the Year 1925-26:		
Committee on Character and Citizenship	\$199.33	
Editorial Council	500.00	
Committee on Health Education	476.54	
Printing Health Reports	2,568.81	
Illiteracy Commission	117.93	
Legislative Commission	772.13	
Committee on the Classification of Educational Material	249.90	
Committee on the Standardization of School House Planning	81.57	
Committee on Tenure	81.68	
Committee on Thrift Education	1.80	
Committee on Educational Nomenclature	31.88	
Committee on Museums	49.46	
Department of Classroom Teachers	6,040.42	
Department of Elementary School Principals	1,400.00	
Department of Adult Education	500.00	
		13,071.45
Carried Forward.....		208,409.51

Brought Forward.....		\$208,409.51
Financing Delegates (1925 Convention)	9,379.00	
Kindergarten Education	33.78	
Printing Kindergarten Report (1925).....	910.00	
American Education Week	236.68	
Committee of One Hundred on Retirement Allowances	58.93	
Committee of One Hundred on Classroom Teachers Problems	311.60	
Committee of One Thousand on Child Labor.....	123.65	
Committee on Community Relations	64.12	
Committee on Professional Ethics	150.62	
Committee on Standard Requirements, and Credits of Teachers in the Service.....	12.88	
Committee on Teaching Democracy	20.73	
Committee on Visual Education	39.73	
Committee on Homes for Retired Teachers.....	213.87	
Committee on Foreign Relations	31.71	
		11,587.30
Division of Accounts:		
(Salaries, Stationery, Etc.)	5,643.87	
Division of Legislation:		
(Salaries, Stationery, Etc.)	16,532.55	
Division of Business:		
(Salaries, Stationery, Etc.)	20,058.64	
Division of Publications:		
(Salaries, Stationery, Etc.)	17,170.45	
Division of Research:		
(Salaries, Stationery, Etc.)	22,454.53	
Division of Classroom Service:		
(Salaries, Stationery, Etc.)	6,088.77	
Division of Administrative Service:		
(Salaries, Stationery, Etc.)	2,994.55	
Division of Records and Membership:		
(Salaries, Stationery, Etc.)	20,519.06	
Purchase of Office Furniture and Fixtures	\$3,614.07	
*Office Stationery and Supplies.....	690.92	
		2,923.15
*Stamped envelopes.		\$334,382.38

CASH SUMMARY

Balance as per Treasurer's Report, May 31, 1925		\$18,555.83
Receipts for the year ending May 31, 1926	\$378,202.32	
Decrease in Accounts Receivable.....	\$4,553.07	
Less Bad Debts written off.....	1,346.73	
	3,206.34	
		381,408.66
		\$399,964.49
Disbursements for the year ending May 31, 1926.....	\$334,382.38	
Transfer from Current Funds to Permanent Fund	2,500.00	
Total disbursements as at May 31, 1925.....	\$336,882.38	
Vouchers Payable as at May 31, 1925	23,455.01	
	\$360,337.39	
Carried Forward.....		39,627.10

Brought Forward.....	\$39,627.10
Expenses unpaid (Vouchers Payable) on May 31, 1926.....	19,248.37
Cash Balance as at May 31, 1926.....	\$58,875.47

Respectfully submitted,

HENRY L. SMITH, *Treasurer.*

Certificate of Auditors

To the President of the National Education Association:

We have audited the accounts of the National Education Association, and of the Treasurer, and of the Secretary for the year ended May 31, 1926, and certify that the foregoing statement of Receipts and Disbursements is correct and is in accordance with the books of the Association. The Secretary's Revolving Fund of \$30,000.00 has also been verified by us.

New York, N. Y.

June 18, 1926.

PEAT, MARWICK, MITCHELL & Co.

REPORT OF THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES FOR THE FISCAL YEAR

June 1, 1925, to May 31, 1926

To the Executive Committee, Board of Directors, and Representative Assembly:

The Board of Trustees herewith submit their Annual Report on the finances and property of the Association.

The Funds of the Association, which are under the jurisdiction of the Board of Trustees, are deposited or held in trust by the Continental Trust Company at Washington, D. C., the depository designated by the Trustees. The funds received from various sources which are deposited in the Regular Account are checked out only upon the authority given by the president, secretary, and chairman of the Board of Trustees.

The Permanent Fund is the money which has been put into a reserve fund. The income from this fund pays for repairs, upkeep, insurance, etc., on the property in which part of this fund is invested. The Balance goes into the Regular Fund for current expenses. The Permanent Fund is invested in stocks, mortgages, bonds, and real estate.

The Regular Fund is the money received from memberships, from the sale of volumes and pamphlets, from commercial exhibits, advertising, etc.

The Revolving Fund is a part of the moneys of the Regular Fund placed in the hands of the Secretary to pay salaries and current bills. The Secretary presents vouchers for the money he expends. The Revolving Fund is reimbursed monthly from the General Fund.

Detailed information follows:

Respectfully submitted,

BOARD OF TRUSTEES,

By WALTER R. SIDERS, *Chairman.*

THE AUDITORS' REPORT

Income and Expenses

The excess of income over expenses resulted in a surplus of \$45,627.85 for the year ended May 31, 1926. The following is a condensed comparative statement of the income and expenses for the two years ended May 31, 1926 and 1925:

Condensed Comparative Statement of Income and Expenses

INCOME:

	Year ended May 31 1926	1925	Increase Decrease
Memberships from Secretary's Office.....	\$138,481.00	\$119,247.50	\$19,233.50
Memberships from Annual Conventions....	5,772.00	5,903.35	131.35
N. E. A. Journal—Subscriptions and Advertising, etc.	195,674.73	169,561.82	26,112.91
Sales of Proceedings	1,140.52	831.50	309.02
Sales of Special Reports.....	4,213.99	4,276.39	62.40
Commercial Exhibits	4,563.03*	20,298.44	15,735.41
Research Bulletin	10,204.83	5,524.10	4,680.73
Honorariums	\$837.54	\$1,819.92	\$982.38
Rentals	2,723.75	2,630.00	93.75
Interest and Discount Earned.....	297.01	64.24	232.77
Cash Sales—Reports, Pamphlets, etc.....	2,387.74	1,972.04	415.70
Net Income transferred from Permanent Fund	12,198.16	12,346.42	148.22
Sundry Income	822.87	292.02	530.85
Sales of Dr. Harris' Book.....	210.04	792.00	581.96
Sales of Pageant Leaflets.....	2,017.75		2,017.75
	\$381,544.90	\$345,559.74	\$35,985.16

EXPENSES:

Board of Trustees	\$768.79	\$602.64	\$166.15
Executive Committee	3,904.91	3,276.82	628.09
General Secretary's Office	19,845.15	21,349.63	1,504.48
Home Office	30,393.43	29,036.49	1,356.94
Institutional Expenses—Annual Convention.	8,372.29	6,466.40	1,905.89
World Conference on Education.....	1,000.00	1,150.00	150.00
Expense in Collecting Membership Dues...	10,556.86	5,168.76	5,388.10
Publicity in Anticipation of Membership...	15,364.56	23,016.28	7,651.72
General Publicity		500.75	500.75
Special Committee appointed by the President	130.16	422.71	292.55
Membership—American Council on Education	100.00	100.00	
N. E. A. Journal (Printing and Distribution)	92,687.66	86,719.67	5,967.99
Volumes of Proceedings (Printing)	8,458.22	7,792.14	666.08
Research Bulletins (Printing and Distribution)	6,867.12	6,554.57	312.55
Dr. Harris' Book		2,055.85	2,055.85
Special Appropriations	24,658.75	27,138.84	2,480.09

Note.—* No Commercial Exhibits, May, 1926.

	Year ended May 31 1926	1925	Increase Decrease
Division of Accounts.....	5,643.87	15,348.90	10,814.03
Division of Records and Membership.....	20,519.06	16,840.62	308.07
Division of Legislation	16,532.55	18,720.92	1,337.72
Division of Business	20,058.64	15,040.18	2,130.27
Division of Publications.....	17,170.45	15,900.43	6,554.10
Division of Research.....	22,454.53	6,168.73	79.96
Division of Class Room Service.....	6,088.77	1,874.01	1,120.54
Division of Administrative Service.....	2,994.55	1,764.85	418.12
Bad Debts Written Off.....	1,346.73		
	<u>\$335,917.05</u>	<u>\$313,010.19</u>	<u>\$22,906.86</u>

Surplus for Year 45,627.85 \$32,549.55 \$13,078.30

As in former years, prepaid subscriptions, memberships, etc., have been treated as income of the current year.

Further particulars of the income and expenses for the year ended May 31, 1926, are submitted in Exhibit "A," appended hereto.

The following is a statement of the Surplus Account for the year:

Surplus as at May 31, 1925..... \$27,213.10

Add:

Surplus for Year ended May 31, 1926, as per Income and Expense Statement	\$45,627.85	
Less Amount transferred to Permanent Fund.....	2,500.00	
		<u>43,127.85</u>

Surplus as at May 31, 1926..... \$70,340.95

Receipts and Disbursements

The following is a summary of the cash receipts and disbursements of the Treasurer's accounts for the year:

Cash Balance as at May 31, 1925..... \$18,555.83

Receipts:

Income as per Income and Expense Statement..... \$381,544.90

Accounts and Notes Receivable as at May 31, 1925 \$16,696.58

Less Accounts Receivable as at May 31, 1926 12,143.51

\$4,553.07

Less Bad Debts Written Off..... 1,346.73

3,206.34

\$384,751.24

Income from Permanent Fund as at May 31, 1926, held by Continental Trust Co... \$3,043.72

Departments of Superintendence and Elementary School Principals, etc.:

As at May 31, 1925..... \$7,842.05

As at May 31, 1926..... 7,543.19

3,342.58

Total Cash Receipts..... 381,408.66

Carried Forward.....		\$381,408.66
Disbursements:		
Expenses as per Income Statement.....	\$335,917.05	
Less Bad Debts Written Off applied to Accounts Receivable (above)	1,346.73	
	<u>\$334,570.32</u>	
1925 Bills Paid during current year.....	23,455.01	
	<u>\$358,025.33</u>	
Less:		
Bills Unpaid as at May 31, 1926.....	\$19,248.37	
Depreciation—Office Furniture, etc.....	3,111.09	
	<u>22,359.46</u>	
	<u>\$335,665.87</u>	
Furniture and Fixtures purchased during Year	\$3,614.07	
Office Stationery and Supplies—decreased during year	690.92	
	<u>\$2,923.15</u>	
	<u>\$338,589.02</u>	
Transferred to Permanent Fund.....	2,500.00	
	<u>341,089.02</u>	
Excess of Cash Receipts over Cash Expended.....		\$58,875.47
Accounted for as follows:		
Revolving Fund	\$30,000.00	
General Account—Continental Trust Co.	28,875.47	
	<u>\$58,875.47</u>	

We examined the cash receipts after making an investigation of the methods of handling the income derived from memberships, subscriptions to the N. E. A. Journal, advertising and sundry income, and so far as the system permitted us to do so, within the expenditure of a reasonable amount of time, we satisfied ourselves that all the funds received had been properly accounted for.

All vouchers supporting cash disbursements were examined and found in order.

Assets and Liabilities

The following is a statement of the assets and liabilities as at May 31, 1926, as shown by the books:

Assets

Secretary's Fund—in bank, on hand and to be reimbursed from the regular account	\$30,000.00
Regular Account—in bank.....	28,875.47
	<u>\$58,875.47</u>
Permanent Fund:	
In Bank—Principal Account	\$821.38
In Bank—Income Account.....	3,043.72
	<u>3,865.10</u>
Carried Forward.....	\$62,704.57

Brought Forward.....		\$62,740.57
Accounts Receivable	12,143.51	
Less Reserve for Doubtful Accounts.....	1,000.00	
		<u>11,143.51</u>
Notes Receivable, Life Members.....		7,005.00
Stationery, Supplies, Stamped Envelopes, etc.		1,292.91
Old Volumes of Proceedings and Other Publications.....		500.00
Securities at Book Value (Schedule "1")		100,928.80
Real Estate Notes.....		14,000.00
Real Estate:		
Cost Price	\$153,000.00	
Improvements and Alterations since date of Purchase—		
M Street Property.....	17,566.13	
		<u>\$170,566.13</u>
Less Mortgages and Loans.....	\$66,000.00	
		<u>\$104,566.13</u>
Office Furniture, Fixtures and Equipment.....	\$34,724.96	
Less Reserve for Depreciation.....	12,448.06	
		<u>22,276.90</u>
		<u>\$324,453.82</u>

Liabilities

Accounts Payable	\$19,248.37
Department of Superintendence.....	5,160.98
Department of Elementary School Principals.....	1,748.22
Department of Adult Education.....	633.99
Trust Fund—Permanent Investment.....	227,321.31
Surplus	70,340.95
	<u>\$324,453.82</u>

We verified the Secretary's Fund partly by count and partly by certificate obtained from the depository, and the Regular Account was verified by certificate from the same source. We also verified the balance in the Permanent Fund by the certified report of the Trustee.

We checked the accounts receivable, which were in agreement with the control account in the General Ledger. We analyzed them as to age and condition, and from our discussion with the business manager we are of the opinion that the reserve of \$1,000.00 set up previously, is adequate.

The notes receivable (life members) on hand were examined by us and found in order.

The stationery, supplies, stamped envelopes, etc., on hand, are book figures, supported by lists which we inspected. The values are stated at cost and we obtained a certificate from the business manager as to the quantities and values.

As in previous years, the old volumes of proceedings and other publications are carried at the same amount of \$500, which is a conservative valuation. This asset now includes the following: "Old Volumes of Proceedings" 18,505 copies, "Health Education" 3500 copies, "School House Planning" 5000 copies and "Harris' Book" 4000 copies.

We inspected vouchers for all the addition to the furniture, fixtures and equipment during the year, amounting to \$3,614.07, and found the amounts to be proper capital charges.

We made a sufficient check to satisfy ourselves that all known liabilities are shown on the books, and obtained a certificate to this effect from the business manager.

The accounts of the Departments of Superintendence and Elementary School Principals were examined by us and found to be correct; we did not, however, audit the account of the Department of Adult Education.

Permanent Fund

We have audited the receipts and disbursements of the Permanent Fund and have inspected the securities in the custody of the Continental Trust Co., Washington, D. C. A detailed list is attached hereto as Schedule "I," showing their par values and cost price. During the year the Kansas City School Bonds, \$10,000, were redeemed at par, the mortgage loans were reduced by \$17,000 and Real Estate 6% Notes, amounting to \$14,000, were purchased. All income from investments was received during the year.

The following statement shows the changes in the Permanent Fund during the year:

Balance as at May 31, 1925, as per last report.....	\$207,166.31
Added during year:	
Cash received for Life Members' Fees.....	\$11,625.00
Notes for Life Members' Fees:	
Amount as at May 31, 1925.....	\$1,475.00
Amount as at May 31, 1926.....	7,005.00 5,530.00
	17,155.00
Cash transferred from Association's Income.....	2,500.00
Profit on Kansas City School Bonds, \$10,000.00, redeemed July 1, 1925	500.00
Balance as at May 31, 1926.....	\$227,321.31
Made up as follows:	

Cash	\$821.38
Notes Receivable—Life Members.....	7,005.00
Real Estate 6% Notes Secured by 1201 16th St.....	14,000.00
Securities	100,928.80
Real Estate, less Mortgage Loans thereon.....	87,000.00
Improvements at M Street.....	17,566.13
	\$227,321.31

The income from the investments and the disbursements for the period are summarized as follows:

Receipts:

Interest from Securities Owned (Schedule "I").....	\$4,550.00
Rentals received from Real Estate Owned.....	15,000.00
Interest from Real Estate Notes.....	481.18

\$20,031.18

Disbursements:

Interest on Mortgages, etc.....	\$4,579.83
Taxes	190.67
Repairs, etc.....	1,803.57
Insurance	423.19
Trustees' Commission.....	414.82
Mortgage Renewal Fees, etc.....	421.00

7,833.08

Net Income..... \$12,198.10

Amount transferred to Association.....	\$9,154.38	
Balance on hand, May 31, 1926.....	3,043.72	
		<u>\$12,198.10</u>

The receipts were properly accounted for and vouchers were produced in support of all disbursements.

Yours truly,

PEAT, MARWICK, MITCHELL & CO.

Exhibit "A"

Income and Expenses
For the Year ended May 31, 1926

Income:

Memberships from Secretary's Office.....	\$138,481.00	
Memberships from Annual Conventions.....		5,772.00
N. E. A. Journal:		
Subscriptions (Part of Membership Dues).....	\$125,094.00	
Advertising	70,326.83	
Sales	253.90	
		<u>195,674.73</u>
Sales of Proceedings.....		1,140.52
Sales of Special Reports		4,213.99
Commercial Exhibits		4,563.03
Research Bulletin:		
Subscriptions	\$4,804.00	
Sales	5,187.34	
Special Investigations	213.49	
		<u>10,204.83</u>
Honorariums		837.54
Rentals		2,723.75
Interest and Discount Earned.....		297.01
Cash Sales, Reports, Pamphlets, Etc.....		2,387.74
Net Income Transferred from Permanent Fund.....		12,198.10
Sundry Income		822.87
Sales of Harris' Book.....		210.04
Sales of Pageant Leaflets.....		2,017.75
		<u>\$381,544.90</u>

Total Income \$381,544.90

Expenses:

Board of Trustees	\$768.79	
Executive Committee:		
President (Mr. Newlon) 1924-25.....	\$692.31	
President (Miss McSkimmon) 1925-26....	1,074.43	
First Vice-President (Dr. Owen) 1924-25.	138.28	
First Vice-President (Mr. Newlon) 1925-26	411.04	
Treasurer (Miss Adair) 1924-25.....	116.13	
Treasurer (Dr. Smith) 1925-26.....	203.06	
Chairman, Board of Trustees.....	771.48	
Member by Election (Miss Iversen)		
1924-25	257.83	
Member by Election (Miss Adair) 1925-26	240.35	
		<u>3,904.91</u>

Carried Forward..... \$4,673.70 \$381,544.90

Total Income, Brought Forward.....			\$381,544.90
Brought Forward		\$4,673.70	
General Secretary's Office:			
Salary of Secretary.....	\$8,874.00		
Clerical Services	8,537.55		
Traveling Expenses	507.10		
Stationery and Office Supplies.....	408.66		
Postage and Stamped Envelopes.....	925.47		
Telegrams	304.41		
General Expenses	287.96		
		19,845.15	
Income and Expenses, Continued:			
Home Office:			
General Expenses, Etc.....	\$311.15		
Express and Freight	689.34		
Telephone Service	2,027.93		
Telegrams	144.13		
Postage—Miscellaneous Reports and Pamphlets	491.82		
Repairs—Office Fixtures and Equipment....	377.91		
Depreciation—Office Fixtures and Equipment	3,111.09		
Interest and Discounts Allowed.....	1,337.90		
Surety Bonds	210.00		
Insurance	92.47		
Audit Fee, Etc.....	813.67		
Physical Plant Expenses:			
Rent	\$15,000.00		
Light and Power.....	873.25		
Heat	1,209.92		
Janitor Service	1,635.25		
Maintenance, Etc.	2,067.60	20,786.02	
			30,393.43
Institutional Expenses:			
Annual Conventions:			
Department Expenses	\$322.24		
State Directors	400.59		
Registration	559.52		
Stenographic Service	111.47		
Publicity	1,097.90		
Printing—Programs and Miscellaneous...	1,700.82		
Express and Freight.....	190.82		
Telephone and Telegrams.....	92.15		
Representative Assembly Expense.....	708.27		
Badges	207.80		
Miscellaneous Expenses (Speakers, Etc.) .	1,109.70		
Sesquicentennial Pageant, Phila.....	1,871.01		
			8,372.29
Expense in Collecting Membership Dues...	10,556.86		
Publicity in Anticipation of Membership...	15,364.56		
Special Committee Appointed by the President	\$130.16		
World Conference on Education—Membership	1,000.00		
Carried Forward.....		\$90,436.15	\$381,544.90

Total Income, Brought Forward.....	381,544.90
Brought Forward	\$90,436.15
American Council on Education—Member- ship	100.00
N. E. A. Journal (Printing and Distribution) ..	92,687.66
Volume of Proceedings (1925)	8,458.22
Research Bulletin (Printing and Distribu- tion)	6,867.12
Special Appropriations for the Year:	
Committee on Character and Citizenship...	\$199.33
Editorial Council	500.00
Committee on Health Education.....	3,045.35
Illiteracy Commission	117.93
Legislative Commission	772.13
Committee on Classification of Education Material	249.90
Committee on Standardization of School House Planning and Construction	81.57
Committee on Tenure.....	81.68
Committee on Thrift Education.....	1.80
Committee on Education Nomenclature....	31.88
Department of Classroom Teachers.....	6,040.42
Committee on Museums	49.46
Financing of Delegates.....	9,379.00
Committee on Kindergarten Education....	943.78
American Education Week.....	236.68
Department of Elementary School Principals	1,400.00
Committee of One Hundred on Retirement Allowances	58.93
Committee of One Hundred on Classroom Teachers' Problems	311.60
Committee of One Thousand on Child Labor	123.65
Committee on Community Relations.....	64.12
Committee on Professional Ethics.....	150.62
Committee on Standard Requirements and Credits for Teachers.....	12.88
Committee on Teaching Democracy.....	\$20.73
Committee on Visual Education.....	39.73
Committee on Home for Retired Teachers..	213.87
Committee on Foreign Relations.....	31.71
Department of Adult Education.....	500.00
	\$24,658.75
Division of Accounts—Clerical Services, Stationery, Etc.	5,643.87
Division of Records and Membership—Salaries, Clerical Services, Etc.	20,519.06
Division of Legislation—Clerical Services, Traveling, Etc.	16,532.55
Division of Business—Salaries, Clerical Services, Mail- ing Section, Etc.....	20,058.64
Division of Publications—Salaries, Clerical Service, Postage, Etc.	17,170.45
Division of Research—Salaries, Clerical Services, Books, Stationery, Etc.	22,454.53
Division of Classroom Service—Salaries, Clerical Serv- ice, Etc.	6,088.77

Division of Administration—Salaries, Clerical Services, Etc.	2,994.55	
Bad debts Written Off.....	1,346.73	
Total Expenses		\$335,917.05
Total Income for the Year.....		381,544.90
Surplus for the Year.....		\$45,627.85

Schedule "1"

Securities on Hand

As at May 31, 1926

Municipal and School Bonds:	Value		Income
	Par	Book	
Clearwater, Kansas, Water Works 5% Bonds due:			
1930—No. 18	\$1,000.00	\$1,000.00	\$50.00
1931—Nos. 19, 20	2,000.00	2,000.00	100.00
1932—Nos. 21, 22, 23	3,000.00	3,000.00	150.00
Salt Lake City, Utah, Water Bonds, 4½% due 1934, Nos. 310 to 319.....	10,000.00	10,000.00	450.00
Seattle, Washington, School Bonds, 4½% due 1931, Nos. 586 to 595.....	10,000.00	10,266.30	450.00
Kansas City 3½% School Bonds, \$10,000.00 redeemed July 1, 1925.....			175.00
Railroad Bonds:	\$26,000.00	\$26,266.30	\$1,375.00
Atlantic Coast Line R. R. Co., 1st Cons. Mtge. Bonds 4%, due 1952, Nos. 5130, 6494, 11638, 11639, 14335, 14339, 17579, 24601, 37565, and 50251.....	10,000.00	9,600.00	400.00
Baltimore and Ohio R. R. Co. (Pittsburgh, Lake Erie & West Virginia System) Ref. Gold Bonds 4% due 1941, Nos. 13496 to 13500, 21236 to 21250.....	20,000.00	19,942.50	800.00
Chicago, Indiana & Southern Ry. Co. 4% due 1956, Nos. 11386 to 11394 and 13786..	10,000.00	9,500.00	400.00
Manhattan Railway Co. Cons. Mtge. Gold Bonds 4% due 1990, Nos. 2843, 6522, 16083, 16087	4,000.00	3,900.00	160.00
Oregon Short Line R. R. Co. Ref. Gold Bonds 4% due 1929, Nos 4013 to 4017, 4025 to 4027, 4976, 13810.....	10,000.00	8,895.00	400.00
St. Louis & San Francisco R. R. Co. Adjust- ment Bonds 6% due 1955, Nos. M14552, D845, Y1033	1,750.00	1,443.75	105.00
St. Louis & San Francisco R. R. Co. Prior Lien Mtge. Bonds 4% due 1950, Nos. M56051 to 56055, Y1527.....	5,250.00	4,331.25	210.00
Terminal R. R. Association of St. Louis, Gen. Ref. Sinking Fund Gold Bonds 4% due 1953, Nos. 16311 to 16325.....	15,000.00	15,050.00	600.00
Corporation Bonds:			
Maine Real Estate Title Co. 1st Mtge. Gold 5% due 1932, Nos. 151 to 152.....	2,000.00	2,000.00	100.00
Totals	\$104,000.00	\$100,928.80	\$4,550.00

REPORT OF THE SECRETARY

J. W. CRABTREE, SECRETARY

In this annual report, prepared largely for the information of the Board of Directors and the Representative Assembly, particular attention is given to the increased service of the Association and to its growth. The chief purpose is to show the improvement in the aims and ideals of the Association, to give a bird's-eye view of the scope of work and especially to focus attention on the larger achievements just ahead.

WORK, GROWTH, MEMBERSHIP

ENTIRE PROFESSION AT WORK—One of the greatest achievements of the Association during the past year has been in getting "the profession at work on its problems." Because of its importance let us discuss this subject first in the report. More than three times as many elementary and high school groups of teachers met regularly last year to study vital problems than during the preceding year. Much more time and attention were given to general problems during the year than ever before by all organized groups of teachers.

INCREASED
ATTENTION TO
PROBLEMS

The Association started out a few years ago with the ideal, "A stabilized all inclusive membership and the entire profession at work on its problems." At first the thought seemed to center around the importance of a stabilized membership and that of arousing pride in membership in general, but gradually it began to be understood that the second part of the ideal is fundamental in developing professional spirit and that professional spirit is in turn the foundation for a "stabilized all inclusive membership."

FUNDAMENTAL
IN DEVELOP-
MENT OF PROFES-
SIONAL SPIRIT

State associations are interested in the movement and are arranging to provide suitable material and plans for study in their state journals. *The Journal of the National Education Association* will devote itself largely to carrying out a program which has been definitely planned. *The Research Bulletin* is preparing numbers on vital problems, adapting them for the use of local associations and for smaller groups of teachers.

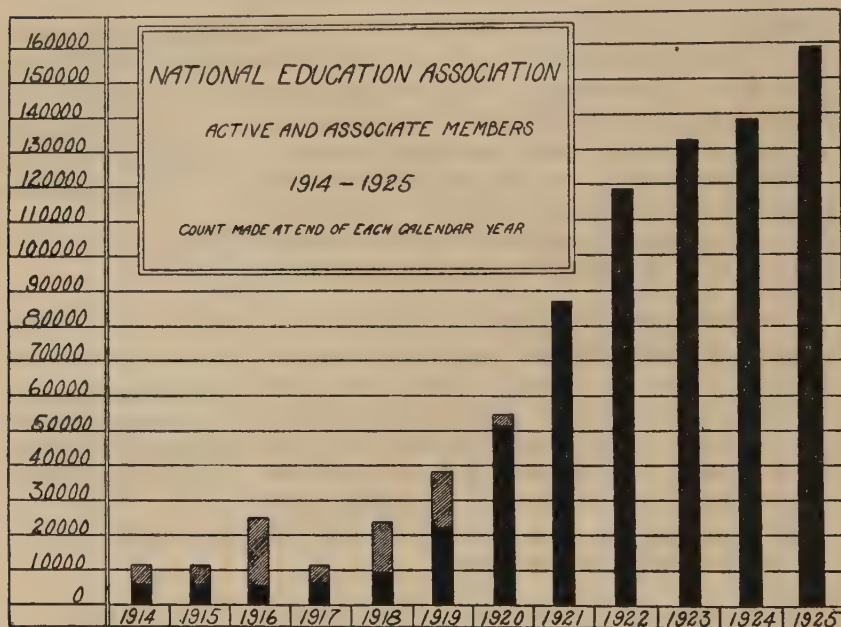
MATERIAL FOR
STUDY

We cannot overestimate the great importance of getting the profession interested in and at work on its problems. Let every delegate returning from the Philadelphia meeting call attention to the forward looking things being done by the Association and lay special stress on this ideal. Getting together at the national convention only pays in the proportion that values are taken home to inspire and aid in worthwhile professional and educational projects in the community.

CARRYING
MESSAGE BACK
HOME

GROWTH AND MEMBERSHIP—The membership of the Association has doubled the fourth time in a decade. The service which it renders has increased proportionately. The profession is at work on its problems as never before. The few thousands in 1916 who could see the opportunity of the Association for the immediate future have increased twenty times.

PROSPERITY DURING NEXT DECADE These larger numbers who have the perspective of a much greater and more serviceable national association, together with the momentum from the progress of the past decade, mean unprecedented prosperity during the years to come.



The teachers of the nation have shown their appreciation of the services and leadership of the Association by enlisting in larger and larger numbers each year. The membership chart tells the story. When the Association recently indorsed the School Land Bill in Congress, it received

**LARGER
ASSOCIATION
ITS INFLUENCE**

new interest and consideration. When the secretaries of state associations and other leaders wrote their Congressmen asking them to support the bill, replies were usually favorable. Congressmen now realize that teachers are thinking as never before on their problems and that they are solidly behind important measures. They begin to look upon the members of the teaching profession as an important part of their con-

stituency. When the Association speaks they realize that it speaks for a solidified organization in their own states. The representatives of no other organization receive a more cordial welcome at the Capitol than the representatives of the various state associations who come to Washington in the interests of educational legislation. The influence of the Association is all the greater because it avoids political entanglements. It promotes causes, not candidates. It makes no political threats, but it makes demands and presents facts to sustain them. It leaves its own members free to vote on all questions as they see fit. Its policy leaves room for the play of the imagination on the part of the candidate. In the long run this policy wins.

NO POLITICAL ENTANGLEMENTS

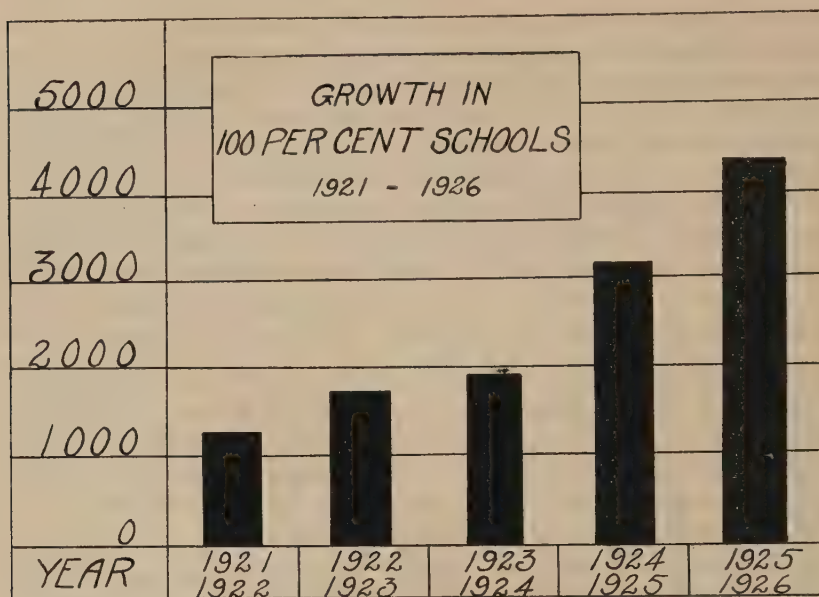
Remember that the greatest battles on behalf of education for democracy are yet to be fought. We have only scratched the surface. The teaching profession must labor constantly to render greater service and to raise the level of teaching throughout the United States to a higher plane. Continuous professional and scientific study is necessary in order that education may meet the needs of our complex and changing civilization. Curriculum construction, more scientific methods of teaching, a better understanding of child life, and equalization of educational opportunity are problems demanding immediate attention. Hundreds of thousands of children are not now getting anything like a square deal. Teachers' salaries, tenure, provisions for retirement, and working conditions are far from what they should be. The professional army leading in the fight for better conditions needs not only the help which comes from the annual enlistment of members but also that which comes from the completed enrolment of schools and the life enlistment of leaders.

GREATEST BATTLES YET TO BE FOUGHT

ONE HUNDRED PERCENT SCHOOLS—This chart on one hundred percent schools shows the growth in professional spirit among teachers. Whether we have in mind the value of a stabilized membership or that of getting the profession at work on its problems we reach success through the one hundred percent enrolments. A one hundred percent record year after year is the highest quality of active permanent membership. The professional spirit which retains a school on the honor roll is that which naturally gives it a place of leadership in the movement to get the

BUILDERS OF THE PROFESSION

entire profession at work on its problems. These teachers and principals who give the continuous support of complete enlistments for schools, like life members, are the builders of the profession. Their names will go down to the next generation much oftener than they would think possible as the master masons of a professional structure such as the world has never before known. They are blazing the way. The Association is under deep obligation to them.



LIFE MEMBERSHIP—The attention of the officers and delegates is called to the rapid increase in life membership during the last five months. This is due to the recent action of the Executive Committee and the Board of Trustees in extending formal invitations to men and women of successful teaching and administrative experience. It is also due to increased professional spirit. The Chart on Life Membership shows the paid membership since 1921. Besides these, there are forty-five who became life members from 1884 to 1898; twenty-one are life members by virtue of having been presidents of the Association, and national commissioners of education. For everyone who became a member since 1921, there is in the permanent fund in cash or in notes the sum of \$100, or a total of more than \$30,000.

RAPID INCREASE OF LIFE MEMBERS

We have been enlisting and reenlisting annually. The movement now is to enlist for life. Life membership dues go into the permanent fund. If members enlist by the hundreds, it will soon mean an adequate reserve fund for emergencies. It will soon mean that the present headquarters can be enlarged into a fine six-story office building comparable with the headquarters of the National Research Council or of the American Federation of Labor.

ENLARGED BUILDING IN SIGHT

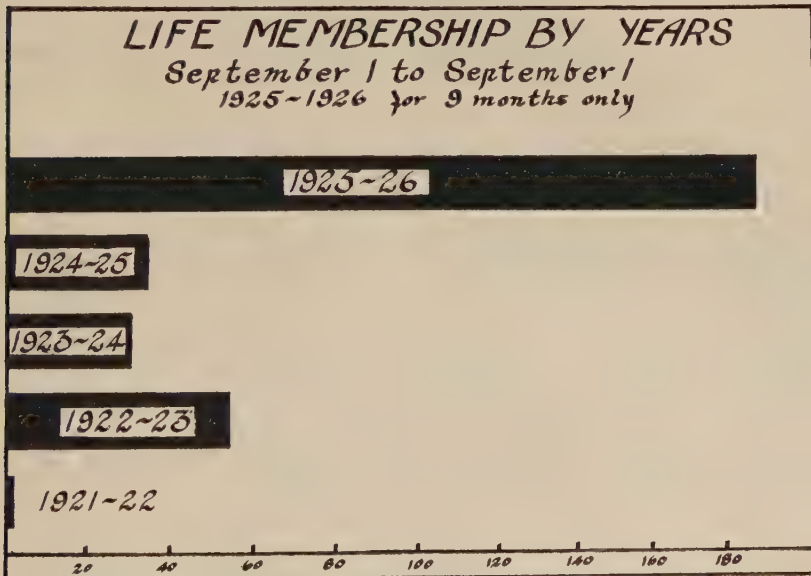
Life membership means active membership with dues paid for life. Any active member may become a life member. The democracy of our Association requires that all are entitled to the same privileges and oppor-

tunities. Yet the present high character of the list can always be maintained. The fee of \$100 is in part a contribution, which the selfish teacher will seldom make. The teacher lacking in vision could not make this type of investment. Even the one devoted to his work and to the interests of the profession waits to be invited. He must be impressed with the fact that his contribution will continue for generations to render valuable service to the Association. It is like life insurance, which is so important as a protection to the home. The husband and father invariably wait for the solicitor before taking out a policy.

**NO SELFISH
TEACHERS IN
THE LIFE LIST**

Let every officer and delegate be a life member agent during the year 1926-27. Let each one resolve at this convention to be responsible for selecting and securing from the most successful in the profession, one new life member. If each one does his part, both the enlarged building and an adequate reserve fund for emergencies will be realized in 1927 and 1928. Let the goal be one thousand life members for 1926-27. Do not overlook the meaning of these life memberships. They show permanency of interest and effort. They give assurance to new recruits. They impress the public. They win the confidence of law-making bodies.

1000 THE GOAL



THE FINANCES

The Association has closed its fiscal year with a creditable balance. In 1924 there was a financial depression in the agricultural sections of the country which gave the deficit of \$30,311.23 as of June 1, which became on October 1 a deficit of \$76,859.80. The annual receipts from membership are very sensitive to financial conditions. It was predicted that it would require three or more years to wipe out the deficits of 1924, but it will be observed that the June 1 deficit has already been changed into a balance and that the larger deficit of October 1 is nearing the vanishing point. Another good year by proper management will do away with all deficits and make a beginning on a reserve fund for emergencies.

TABLE 1. BALANCES AND DEFICITS: BY MONTHS, 1923-26

	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26
September 1.....		\$66,354.92 Deficit	\$50,929.45 Deficit
October 1.....	\$36,287.48 Deficit	76,859.80 Deficit	45,969.68 Deficit
November 1.....	35,392.09 Deficit	44,356.57 Deficit	11,146.82 Deficit
December 1.....	27,421.64 Deficit	15,894.75 Deficit	38,468.92 Balance
January 1.....	3,414.02 Balance	6,460.92 Balance	67,299.75 Balance
February 1.....	7,206.85 Deficit	1,718.34 Deficit	65,709.84 Balance
March 1.....	26,036.31 Deficit	1,062.44 Deficit	76,067.55 Balance
April 1.....	27,434.41 Deficit	6,533.60 Deficit	64,786.35 Balance
May 1.....	32,134.26 Deficit	14,495.82 Deficit	58,830.76 Balance
June 1.....	30,811.23 Deficit	4,155.35 Balance	44,297.37 Balance

TABLE 2. GROWTH OF INCOME

Total income for the year on the first of certain months for a period of three years

	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26
September 1.....		\$31,841.79	\$20,362.38
November 1.....	\$70,257.94	95,150.40	106,660.57
January 1.....	174,780.77	209,076.36	247,631.29
March 1.....	215,310.14	265,598.54	319,236.84
May 1.....	265,024.83	307,688.30	376,584.06
June 1.....	269,275.75	348,353.03	395,456.18

TABLE 3. SUMMARY OF EXPENDITURES

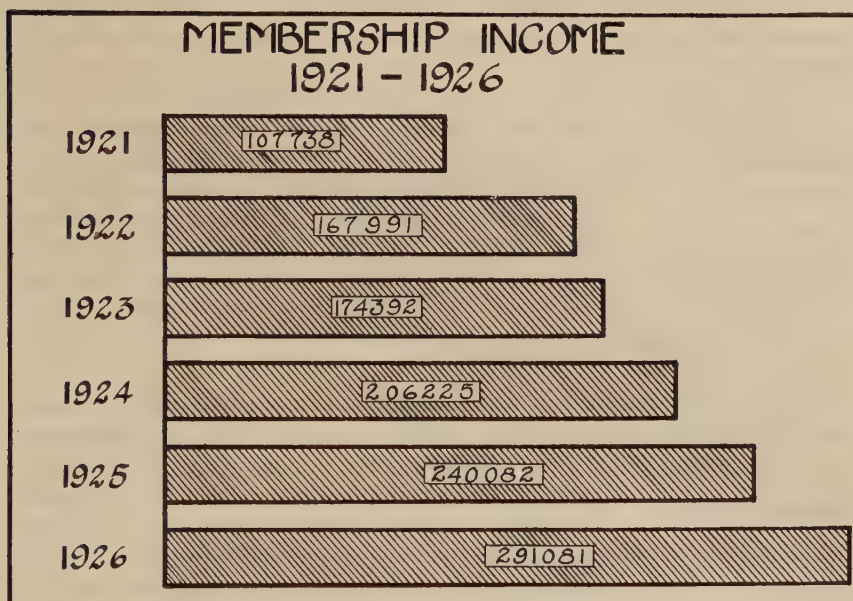
Total expenditures on the first of certain months for a period of three years

	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26
September 1.....	\$59,592.59	\$66,122.23	\$72,645.19
November 1.....	109,145.41	105,382.40	116,563.28
January 1.....	173,527.04	166,607.58	108,471.32
March 1.....	242,643.74	234,440.31	241,942.40
May 1.....	298,156.38	287,074.16	308,445.26
June 1.....	327,162.23	309,324.61	337,500.06

TABLE 4. SOURCES OF INCOME

Total for year from each source for a period of three years

	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26
Membership	\$206,225.50	\$240,081.85	\$291,081.00
Advertising	53,208.60	60,774.47	70,326.83
Commercial Exhibits	21,232.79	20,666.73	4,563.03
Miscellaneous	15,608.86	26,829.88	29,485.32
Total income.....	296,275.75	348,353.03	395,456.18



This is a marvelous two years' record. That which has been accomplished appeals to the pride of the membership. It shows the wisdom of the care exercised by the Budget Committee, the Executive Committee, the Board of Trustees, and if I may be pardoned for saying so, the Headquarters Staff. This unprecedented success could never have been achieved however, had it not been for the response and support of state directors, state secretaries, life members, and thousands of other active members of high cooperative and professional spirit. This success could lead either to extravagance or to a continuance of the policy which has made it all possible. Which shall it be?

**WISE
MANAGEMENT**

It is surprising that deficits could be changed to balances in so short a time without interfering with the services rendered by the Association.

Committees have been amply provided with funds. Ten thousand dollars a year have been used in the partial payment of delegates' expenses. A few thousand dollars have been appropriated for the special use of the Department of Classroom Teachers. Each division of the headquarters staff has been provided with adequate supplies, with funds for traveling expenses, and with efficient clerical and stenographic help. The headquarters building has been kept in good repair and adequate furniture has been provided for each division. No committee, department, or staff member has been hampered in any way. Every one of these agencies has made each dollar render the greatest possible service. Economy and efficiency have been the watchwords.

The system of accounts was revised in 1923 and under its provision the precedent of a budget was started. There is now a satisfactory, working historical basis for making the budget for 1926-27. Item by item, it covers the expenditures of 1923-24, 1924-25, and 1925-26. The arrangements last year and the year before worked out remarkably well considering that these were the first attempts to get on a safer and more complete budget basis.

The salaries of members of the headquarters staff, including stenographers and clerks, are low considering the high cost of living in Washington. Salary increases should be made during the present year. The superintendent, college professor, or other educator very properly increases his annual income by accepting honorariums for addresses. This opportunity is not open to the staff. All honorariums received by them are turned over to the Association.

ITEMS OF INTEREST

The Departments of Superintendence, of Teachers Colleges, of Elementary School Principals, and a few others, have proved the wisdom of having departmental fees and arranging for research in their own special fields. The Classroom Teachers are considering the advisability of adopting the same plan. This enables the department to render a service to members who cannot attend the conferences or meetings through committee reports and yearbooks. To render this service attaches importance to the organization in the eyes of its members and means immediate growth and prosperity. The by-laws in fixing the active membership fee at \$2, presupposes departmental fees to care for special department needs. All larger departments will soon be on the departmental basis.

A few departments are having charts made to show officers, committees, divisions, scope of work, and the like. The Secretary recommends that charts be prepared for all departments during the coming year and is arranging to have this done in Washington under the direction of departments that make the request. **CHARTS SHOW-
ING DEPARTMENT
ORGANIZATION**

The chart will enable the members to know the aims and the scope of work of their own departments much better than at present. The desire is to have all charted on the same general plan and to print them in the volume of Addresses and Proceedings.

A few well known city superintendents have, during the last few years, lost their positions for what appeared to be political or factional reasons. Since nearly all of these lost their positions on the expiration of contracts, the rights involved would not give any basis for legal action. The superintendent had counted on remaining, and the community had counted on it. **SUPERINTEND-
ENTS WITHOUT
POSITIONS**

Reasonable tenure practice and the interests of the schools demanded that he remain. In almost every case where apparent injustice has been done, the community has expressed disapproval in some forceful manner. The public fights such battles extremely well. But there is a support which should come in larger measure than at present from members of the profession—that of help in getting another position.

Some of these excellent superintendents have been allowed to remain out of administrative positions for two or more years. When they were in places of influence they had all the support that was needed from their colleagues. As soon as they no longer had the prestige of office their host of supporters dwindled. **PROFESSION
BECOMNG
MORE ETHICAL**

Some of the ones who profited most wonder whether after all the superintendent was not overrated. They see weaknesses they had not before observed. They do not put themselves out for him. The great majority of the superintendents and other leaders are unselfish and mean to help, but only a few actually do it. Too often we think, "Oh, he'll come out all right," and stop with that. Pigs in the pen will kill the one that gets injured. We don't exactly do that but we do often fail to give our injured brother the sympathy and help which he needs and to which he is entitled. We no longer go after each others' jobs. It is still possible, however, to improve by being more considerate of each others' welfare and more thoughtful of the interests of those who have not had a square deal.

GUARDING INTERESTS OF SCHOOLS—A continuous effort has been made to reach the public through the profession with reliable information on the need of increased support for education. Two or three annual reports of Dr. Pritchett, president of the Carnegie Foundation, have done the cause much harm in places where the public is not well informed concerning

the work and needs of the public schools. Nicholas Murray Butler, by such statements as the following, widely distributed under a Congressman's franking privilege to the uninformed, brings suspicion on the work and influence of the schools: "It would surprise a great many excellent persons to be told that the schools, upon whose maintenance they are pouring out almost unlimited sums raised by public tax, were doing all they reasonably could to implant a spirit of lawlessness in those who come under their influence. And yet that is the sober truth." Certain other influences have been antagonistic to the interests of the schools.

Here is where a solidified profession counts. By working together for worthy ends we have a force capable of meeting almost any type of opposition. It must be remembered, however, that it is the business of members of the Association to keep the truth before the people in every community. If the public is well informed, adverse propaganda will need to justify itself in order to get support. The profession, after all, if solidified holds the winning hand. Let it continue to use it in the interest of the children of the nation.

THE TWELVE SIMPLIFIED SPELLINGS—The interest in reform spelling on the part of the Association began as early as 1897. In 1898 the Association instructed the Secretary to use the following amended spelling in the publications of the Association: tho, altho, thru, thruout, thoro, thoro-fare, thoroly, program, catalog, decalog, pedagog, and prolog.

In 1907 a large number of amended spellings were approved by the Association and later it was decided to use these in all publications. This meant that almost every page in the volume of Addresses and Proceedings and in *The Journal* contained many strange-looking words. In 1921, at the Des Moines meeting, it was decided to discontinue the use of simplified spelling. It is reasonably certain that the real intention was not to do away with the original twelve spellings, yet the motion was so worded.

If spelling reform is a good thing and something to be encouraged, ground has evidently been lost by the sweeping action of 1921. If the reform, so far as it applies to these twelve words, is desirable, why should not the Association continue to advocate their use? It must not attempt any wholesale use of new spellings all at once. A motion to readopt the briefer form for these twelve words ought not to meet with opposition. A member of the Executive Committee proposes that we have a permanent committee in the Association on spelling and style. Why not?

OFFSETTING INFLUENCE OF OPPOSITION

ASSOCIATION HOLDS WIN- NING HAND

ALL STRANGE SPELLING ABANDONED

NO OPPOSITION TO THE ORIGI- NAL TWELVE WORDS

STATEMENT OF POLICY CONCERNING COMMERCIAL EXHIBITS—During the past two years there has been some misunderstanding as to the policy of the National Education Association concerning exhibits. The following statement has been prepared to prevent further confusion and is recommended for the approval of the Board of Directors:

The National Education Association arranges for educational exhibits to accommodate superintendents, members of boards of education, and others interested in keeping abreast of the best in materials and appliances for the schools. The chief benefits come from preparing members to give better advice to school authorities for purchasing school supplies which are, as a rule, to be paid for out of public funds. The Association does not believe that it would be compatible with the interests of the profession or the public school welfare to place the control of these exhibits in the hands of commercial interests. Would such control be compatible even with the interests of the firms to be represented in the exhibits?

**REASONS FOR
HAVING
EXHIBITS**

The democracy of the Association does not permit its discouraging exhibitors from organizing for fellowship and cooperative purposes. It welcomes, and should always welcome, suggestions from individuals or organizations for the improvement of the service. Without this help the service itself would suffer materially. It ought to be clearly understood, however, by officers of organizations that their suggestions and demands can only be accepted on the same conditions as advice coming from other exhibitors and from other sources. It ought to be understood that the Association itself claims the right and responsibility to pass on such questions as these: Where shall the convention be held? Who shall be permitted to exhibit? How shall space be allotted? Who shall be in charge of the exhibit? What charges shall be made for space? And, in general, what rules and regulations shall control the exhibits? It could under no circumstances pass this responsibility over to commercial control.

**SUGGESTIONS
WELCOMED**

**CONTROL TO BE
WITH
ASSOCIATION**

The Association cannot view without apprehension a form of cooperation which would seem to reflect on the motives and policies of the Association. It would regret that any organization would feel the necessity of creating a fund to protect exhibitors from the mistakes of the Association or to consider it to be necessary to be more critical than cooperative in its attitude.

These are among the considerations which the Association considers fundamental in all its relationships with individuals or with organizations composed of the manufacturers and salesmen of school supplies. This statement we believe to be representative of the policy of the Association, a

**FUNDAMENTAL
RELATIONSHIPS**

policy which is in harmony with the wishes of those who exhibit regularly at the conventions.

CHANGES IN BY-LAWS SUGGESTED—There is a question as to whether the state association should not have a larger share in the choice of state director than at present. It provides the funds for state headquarters. It

**STATE DIRECTOR
AND THE STATE
ASSOCIATION**

usually pays the expenses of the director for attending the annual meeting. The state director is the state's representative in the Board of Directors. Should he not be more responsible to the state association. This could be accomplished by arranging for the states to elect one for the directorship and to submit the name to the Association as a nomination for the action of the Representative Assembly. This can be done without changing the charter. Why not give unanimous consent for this change? The advantages would be far-reaching.

The by-laws provide that the state association is entitled to a delegate for each one hundred N. E. A. members to five hundred and after that one for each five hundred N. E. A. members. The local association is en-

**EQUALIZING
DELEGATE
BASIS**

titled to one delegate for each one hundred N. E. A. members, without any limitation. This is not only unfair, but it would make it possible for a few large centers to dominate the elections and policies of the Association. The local associations do not want this advantage in representation. The Philadelphia Association sets the example by observing the same regulations as the state association. Why not at the Philadelphia meeting change the by-laws by unanimous vote? Since the state association pays the expenses of the director, should not the affiliation fee be the same for the state as the local association?

Permit me to recommend a change in procedure as to the reports of the following committees of the Representative Assembly: Committee on Resolutions and the Committee on Necrology. I recommend that instead of

**RESOLUTIONS
COMMITTEE
NECROLOGY**

calling on these committees for reports immediately after election to arrange for them to make their reports one year later. This, we believe, can be done under the present by-laws. Members of these committees have been dissatisfied with the present plan. It gives no chance for weighing matters carefully and for collecting facts. The suggested procedure would give a year for the preparation of reports.

PRONOUNCEMENTS OF THE ASSOCIATION

We have gone back over the records of the Association and made a collection of the resolutions and statements of principles adopted by the

**A STUDY OF
N. E. A.
RESOLUTIONS**

Association from 1857 to 1925 on such forward-looking and outstanding questions as law enforcement, woman suffrage, a national university, increased appropriations for the Bureau of Education.

prohibition, child labor, and a Department of Education, and find in it all a background of foresight, sound judgment, courage, and perserverance, which, if published, would be a source of pride and inspiration to all members of the Association. It is this background which leads the teachers of the nation to accept this as their national professional association and to take pride in being members of it. It is this background that guarantees the future prosperity and leadership of the Association.

A BACKGROUND THAT GUARANTEES

LAW ENFORCEMENT—Owing to the excellence of the material under this head, one can hardly resist the temptation to print all of it, but it would require eight or ten pages in this report. In view of the assertion by an eminent college president that the schools “are doing all they reasonably could to implant a spirit of lawlessness,” members will have greater interest in studying the pronouncements of the Association, which have always represented the sentiment and views of the rank and file of teachers. Although teachers and all who are informed as to what the schools are actually doing know that such criticism is without a fact foundation, but it having been made before the American Bar Association, a few excellent lawyers ignorant of the work of the schools, believe the statement without asking for proof. These resolutions show the fallacy of the assertion. No other body of people have stood more solidly for obedience to law through all the years and no other has had a more wholesome influence on the citizenship of the nation.

A CRITICISM EASILY MET

The following we give as a type of a score of fine resolutions adopted by the Association in the years from 1863 to 1900:

The American public school is distinctly the product of American soil. It is not a copy or outgrowth of any foreign system of education. It is adapted to American needs, and this Association cordially commends whatever will make this adaptation more complete. Any school or system of schools must be regarded as a failure in one great essential if pupils are not loyally taught the great lessons of patriotism and good citizenship. Definite provisions should be made for this work in our courses of study and its faithful performance should be required of every teacher.

SARATOGA SPRINGS 1892

The following resolutions are typical of those adopted or reaffirmed each year since 1900:

The common schools of our country must recognize more fully than ever the necessity of training our youth for citizenship. The perpetuation of democracy depends upon the existence in the people of that habit of will which is justice. The call to citizenship is a call to the exercise of liberty under law, a call to the limitation of liberty by law, and a call to the pursuit of justice, not only for one's self but for others.

DENVER 1909

We call upon teachers everywhere to teach respect for law and order and for constituted authority; to impress alike upon young and old the importance of

obedience to the Constitution and to all state and national laws and to local ordinances; to teach the children that the laws are made by the majority and may be changed by the majority; but that they must be obeyed by all; and that he who disobeys the Constitution or laws is an enemy of the Republic.

These resolutions have been written by the ablest men and women of the nation. They have expressed the views and sentiments of the profession as a whole. There is hardly a teacher in the land who has not believed in the principles set forth and who has not made due effort to carry out the high purposes of the Association. The vision of the leaders has been caught up by the teachers each year. The profession stands solidly for law enforcement. This means also as applied to the more recent amendments to the Constitution.

**PROFESSION
SOLID FOR LAW
ENFORCEMENT**

WOMAN SUFFRAGE—Like the drummer boy, the Association knows how to beat a charge, but it does not know how to beat a retreat. The following are some of the resolutions, which show how the support of suffrage was continued from year to year until the teachers of the nation had the right to vote:

Whereas the great and grave responsibility of the teachers of our country is the training of the youth to realize the duties, rights, and privileges of citizenship; and whereas the ability adequately to accomplish this work demands not only the knowledge of the functions of citizenship, but also the right to exercise them: Be it *Resolved*, That the Association believes in and urges the granting of the right of suffrage to the women of the United States.

CHICAGO 1912

Since the Congress of the United States with commendable justice and recognition of the rights of suffrage to women has passed the separate amendment to the Constitution granting the ballot to the womanhood of America, we urge the governors of all states that have not already ratified the amendment to call a special session of their respective state legislatures so that the amendment may speedily become a law and our great country may take this important additional step in becoming a true democracy.

MILWAUKEE 1919

APPROPRIATIONS FOR THE BUREAU OF EDUCATION—The energies of the Association were largely spent for many years for the enlargement and increased support of the Bureau of Education. From 1867 to 1918 strong resolutions were passed year after year urging larger appropriations. Leading educators made trips at their own expense to Washington to impress this need on the Congress of the United States. The following resolution of 1915 is characteristic of the scores of resolutions which have been passed since 1867:

FROM 1867 TO 1918

This Association desires to express its appreciation of the cooperation extended by the United States Bureau of Education. This Bureau, considering the meager appropriations made for its work, has recently begun to render a service in the

cause of peace and education as important as its scope is limited. This Association desires once more, respectfully to urge upon Congress that it very materially enlarge the appropriations for the maintenance of this Bureau and that it no longer delay placing the Bureau in a position where it can render a service to those engaged in the care and education of children, in all of the states which shall be analogous to that which has for so long been rendered by the national government to those engaged in the care and propagation of fishes, hogs, cattle, and crops.

OAKLAND 1915

This resolution shows impatience at the delay of Congress to care properly for the Bureau and was given about the time when all became convinced that education would never have the recognition its importance demanded until given a spokesman in the President's Cabinet. During those years there were well-grounded fears that an enlarged bureau might eventually mean a Department of Education, or a national university, for both had also been demanded in resolutions. Half a century of unsuccessful effort for an enlarged Bureau to meet the needs has led to the decision to center the effort for the next half century, or such part of it as may be necessary, on a drive for putting education on a par with agriculture, labor, and commerce in the government of the United States.

TO BE ENLARGED
INTO
DEPARTMENT

PROHIBITION—The teachers of the nation of a few decades ago are entitled to a large share of the credit for the passage of the 18th Amendment. They taught the injurious effects of narcotics and stimulants and prepared a generation to stand against the existence of the saloon. This teaching must be continued. If the evil effects of the saloon are not taught, and the other side continues to be held up in the press, we may easily develop in a few years a generation which will undo in a day that which required fifty years and more to achieve.

TEACHERS RE-
SPONSIBLE FOR
PROHIBITION

Read the following resolutions and get inspiration and courage, for these virtues are needed more than ever before:

Resolved, That this Association most heartily approves of the efforts made in Great Britain, and more recently in this country, to introduce into the schools needed instruction on the effects of alcohol upon the human system, and we welcome the appearance of manuals for the information of teachers, embodying the latest teachings of both science and experience on this important question.

CHAUTAUQUA
1880

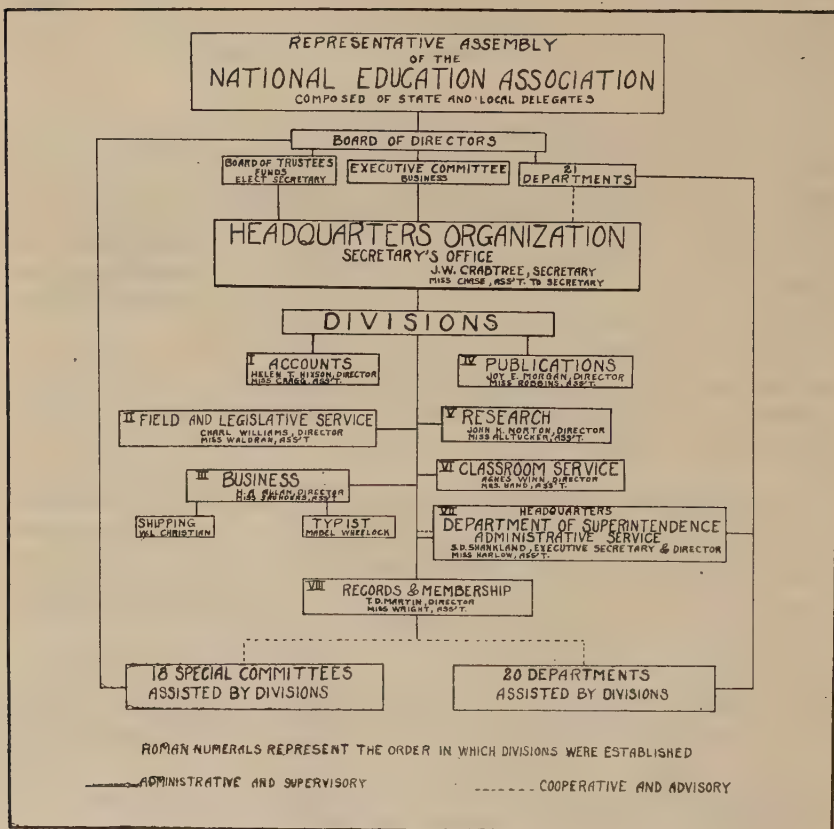
The Eighteenth Amendment—The Association declares itself in hearty accord with the recent decision of the Supreme Court of the United States affirming the validity of the 18th Amendment, and it further believes in and calls for the impartial and fearless enforcement of the Volstead Act or similar acts substantially in harmony in spirit and application to said act, opposing any backward step which shall endanger the fundamental institution of society.

SALT LAKE CITY
1920

These are typical of the many resolutions passed by the Association and its leading departments.

REPORTS OF THE HEADQUARTERS STAFF

For better understanding of the work at the headquarters office read the reports of the directors of divisions. Note their accounts of the work of the past year, the policies and plans for the coming year, and the recommendations which are submitted for the consideration of officers and delegates. The tremendous volume of work in 1925-26 is not only due to well-qualified, faithful and efficient workers, but to a loyal, cooperative spirit found in few offices in the country. You may well be proud of this headquarters staff. It is not at all surprising that a noted expert on efficiency selects our organization as one of the best examples of efficiency in the United States.



REPORT OF THE DIVISION OF ACCOUNTS

HELEN T. HIXSON, DIRECTOR

This report summarizes the activities of the Division of Accounts for the year ended May 31, 1926. The financial status of the Association is set forth in the Treasurer's Report, which has been prepared by this Division and which will be distributed to the delegate body at the Philadelphia meeting. The Treasurer's Report, together with the books of the Association and the Accounts of the Board of Trustees, will be covered in detail in the report of our auditors, Messrs. Peat, Marwick, Mitchell & Co., of New York.

The past year has been one of steady growth and progress, as reflected in our cash summary covering income and disbursements for the fiscal year, which shows an increase of approximately \$40,000 over last year. This increase has been largely due to the growth in membership while our advertising income has also shown a substantial increase.

ACCOUNTS—CLASSIFICATION

The handling of the finances of the Association through the "Tanner" system gives a very flexible method and it is quite adequate in meeting the increased business of the Association—as new accounts can readily be opened, and others closed when the activity ceases, without affecting the smooth operation of the system. A trial balance and financial statement, which gives in detail the distribution of income and expenses for each division, department and committee, is prepared at the end of each month, and certain tables are also prepared making comparisons with former years. A copy of these set-ups is sent to each member of the Executive Committee and Board of Trustees, as well as to the heads of the divisions at the Headquarters office, so that they are able to keep a check on their running expenses as comparable to their budget, and at the same time keep in touch with our monthly income and operating costs.

BUDGET

This is the second year that we have operated under the budget system, which is set up by the Budget Committee appointed by the President, and we are proud of our achievement which shows that we have kept well within the budget appropriation, even though some expenses ran much heavier in certain activities than could be anticipated. From the prepared summary of expenses for the past two years the Budget Committee for the ensuing year will have a good basic foundation on which to build the budget for the new year.

THE PERMANENT FUND

The Permanent Fund of the Association covers the reserve fund which is invested in stock, bonds, notes receivable and real estate. The Permanent Fund has been increased this year by a transfer of funds amounting

to \$2500 from the surplus account, and by the receipt of \$16,955 in Life Memberships. This increase in the Permanent (Invested) Funds spells "Thrift" and a desire, on the part of our members, to place the Association on a sound financial basis, with a reserve fund adequate to tide it through a year or years of financial reverses.

THE REVOLVING FUND

The Revolving (or working) Fund of the Association is designated on the books as the "Special Account." This is a reserve fund set aside from the regular account to care for immediate expense in connection with salaries, weekly payroll and local obligations. These expenses are covered by an office expense voucher which each month reimburses the special account through the regular account. This fund was increased this year from \$15,000 to \$30,000, in order to meet the increased monthly expense of the home office, and at the same time to give a small reserve to meet local emergencies. In the regular account of the Association is deposited all the cash receipts of the Association, as shown by the daily cash record, covering the funds received from all sources.

AUDIT

The annual audit of all incomes and disbursements as shown by the books of the Association, as well as the Permanent (Invested) Fund which is under the supervision of the Board of Trustees, has been made by the auditing firm, appointed by President McSkimmon, and they are submitting a report to the Executive Committee, with recommendations. Their comments upon our system of accounts have been most favorable, and their suggestions as to possible changes to facilitate the work of auditing have been duly noted by this Division.

FUTURE DEVELOPMENT

Owing to the large increase in the daily income of the Association as shown on the daily cash sheets, which necessitates the classification of same into various accounts, we are installing early in the new year a *Cash Recording Machine* which we anticipate will greatly facilitate the handling of receipts during the heavy months of the year. In order to operate this machine effectively and with the greatest satisfaction to all concerned it will be necessary to have at least two operators, who are thoroughly conversant with the method of entering, so that when one is relieved the work will not be "hung up." We will, therefore, need to add another clerk to this division, and this recommendation has been made through the Budget Committee. Aside from the installation of this new system of recording receipts we do not anticipate any change in the present system, other than occasional revisions to meet the growing demands of the Association.

CONCLUSION

The business of the Association throughout the year has been operated with strict attention to all possible economies, and the careful supervision of the activities of each Division and Department has not only increased the efficiency of service but expenses have been kept at the lowest possible figure consistent with that service. For your information and study we have appended below a financial statement giving our assets and liabilities as they appear on our ledger at the beginning of the year 1926-27.

ASSETS	LIABILITIES
Permanent Invested Funds:..... \$293,321.31	Trust Fund: \$227,321.31
Cash \$821.38	Permanent Investment
Securities 100,928.80	Mortgages Payable 66,000.00
Real Estate 153,000.00	Accounts Payable: 19,248.37
Notes Receivable .. 7,005.00	Current bills for supplies and
Real Estate Notes.. 14,000.00	obligations payable on demand.
Real Estate Im- provements 17,566.13	Funds in Trust:..... 7,543.19
Office Furniture, Fixtures and	Dept. of Superin-
Equipment 34,724.96	tendence \$5,160.98
Stock on Hand:..... 1,792.91	Dept. of Ele. Sch.
Stamps \$104.73	Prin. 1,748.22
Stamped Envelopes. 300.42	Dept. of Adult Edu-
Stationery and Sup- plies 887.76	cation 633.99
Volume of Proceed- ings 500.00	Reserves for Depreciation and
Accounts Receivable 12,143.51	Contingencies 13,448.06
Current bills covering advertis- ing, sale of reports and	Provision for the ultimate re-
pamphlets.	tirement of Furniture and
Income due from Trust Fund.. 3,043.72	Equipment and provision
Cash 58,875.47	for contingencies.
Cash and deposits in bank avail- able for current requirements.	Increased during the
\$403,901.88	year \$3,111.09
	Surplus 70,340.95
	Total accumulated income over
	expenditures, after charging
	off depreciation, etc.
	Increased during the
	year \$42,584.13
	\$403,901.88

REPORT OF LEGISLATIVE DIVISION, NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

CHARL ORMOND WILLIAMS, FIELD SECRETARY

SPECIAL WORK FOR EDUCATION BILL

It is gratifying to be able to report a steady growth of interest and effort in behalf of the Education Bill during the past year and to give substantial evidence in support of this statement. If correspondence and distribution of literature may be taken as a measure of the growth of the nation's interest in the Education Bill then there is every reason for encouragement, for more than twice as much was done in this field this year than last year. In developing support for the bill 93,193 pieces of literature were distributed to individuals and organizations largely upon request; 3,350 personal letters and 12,531 form letters were sent out.

Located in Washington are the headquarters of many large national organizations interested in legislative work which are frequently visited by their national and state officers. Every opportunity is taken advantage of to confer with these important people and to place before them the status of the Education Bill and to secure their more active support of it. One hundred and twenty-five such interviews were held, the results of which were very gratifying.

The most effective legislative work done in Washington is a cooperative effort on the part of organizations supporting a measure carried on largely through committee meetings which consume anywhere from an hour to a half-day of time. Twenty-nine such committee meetings were attended. The secretary personally interviewed sixty-nine members of Congress and kept in touch with other persons doing a similar work. Practically every member of Congress has been interviewed and the information thus obtained is on file in her office.

A great impetus to the bill came from the efforts put forth by superintendents and other educators during the meeting of the Department of Superintendence, February 21 to 25, who made it their business to confer with their Senators and Congressmen before they left the city. Twenty-four states arranged "get-together" meetings between the educators and their legislators, the lasting benefits of which it is impossible to estimate.

FIELD ACTIVITIES

The time of the field secretary has been devoted largely to legislative work in Washington, but when it seemed possible to promote the legislative program in the field a number of trips were made. Twenty meetings, local, state, and national, were attended in ten states and the District of Columbia. Three of these meetings were of special interest; (1) the Conference of Southern Governors in Birmingham, Alabama, October 26-31, 1925; (2) the annual convention of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union in Detroit, Michigan, November 13-18, 1925; and, (3) the biennial convention of the General Federation of Women's Clubs in Atlantic City, May 24 to June 4, 1926. These two women's organizations were among the very first to rally to the support of the Education Bill. Their faith in this undertaking has never wavered and today they are "standing like a stone wall" in defense of the principles they advocate. Two other national organizations have been listed among the supporters of the Education Bill making the total number twenty-nine.

The field secretary, as a consulting staff member of the Committee on International Relationships, attended at her own expense the second meeting of the World Federation of Education Associations which convened in Edinburgh, Scotland, July 20 to 27, 1925. From an educational point of view it was a thoroughly wholesome experience and well worth the time and effort expended upon it.

BILLS RELATING TO A DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Early in this session of Congress the following educational bills were introduced:

S. 291—by Senator Charles Curtis of Kansas, Dec. 8, 1925.

H. R. 4097—by Congressman John Tillman of Arkansas, Dec. 8, 1925.

H. R. 5000—by Congressman Daniel A. Reed of New York, Dec. 11, 1925

S. 2841—by Senator Rice Means of Colorado, Jan. 16, 1926.

The main purpose of these bills is the creation of a Department of Education although the Tillman Bill provides for federal aid.

For some unexplained reason the Brown plan for the Reorganization of the Executive Departments of the Federal Government, which provided for a Department of Education and Relief, and which was introduced in the closing days of the 68th Congress, was abandoned and in its place another bill, designed to accomplish the same purposes, was introduced on December 10, 1925 by Senator Smoot of Utah (S. 1334) and by Congressman Mapes of Michigan (H. R. 4770). Nothing has been done to further the passage of this measure and practically nothing has been heard of it since its introduction.

JOINT HEARINGS ON THE EDUCATION BILL

The provisions of this new reorganization bill left the way open for intensive work on the Curtis-Reed Bill, hearings on which were held during the meeting of the Department of Superintendence in Washington.

John H. MacCracken, chairman of the Committee on Federal Legislation of the American Council on Education, which is composed of representatives of the colleges and universities of the country, reported in part May 7 and 8, 1926 to the Council as follows:

The joint hearings before the Committee on Education and Labor of the United States Senate and the Committee on Education of the House of Representatives, held February 24th, 25th, and 26th, to consider the Curtis-Reed bill and the bill of Senator Means of Colorado, introduced for the purpose of creating a Department of Education, were in any event worth while. The 400 pages of printed testimony, while they contain nothing new and startling, do place before us in a more comprehensive form than has hitherto been available, the arguments on both sides of the question and bring into the open, to a greater extent than has hitherto been the case, the sources of opposition to the proposed Department * * *.

The Curtis-Reed bill in itself marks a distinct advance over any project in this field during the last nine years. The omission of the subsidy features and the more careful drafting of the rest of the bill, the provisions for a cooperative committee of the Federal departments and the more generous appropriations for salaries and research have won approval among all friends of a department. It presents the question to Congress in as favorable a form, we believe, as the subject can be presented, and most of the friends of the movement are prepared to await the issue on the question presented in this form. While action at this session is now impossible there will be another opportunity for bringing the bill to a vote at the short session in December. After following the Education bill for nine years we agree with Burke's maxim for the true law giver, "Time is required to produce that union of minds which alone can produce all the good we aim at."

The demand for the record of these hearings has been unprecedented. The Senate Committee received its maximum allowance of 1,000 copies. By a special ruling the House Committee received double the maximum allowance, 2,000 copies. This supply was soon exhausted and on June 3 the House of Representatives passed a resolution authorizing the printing of 2,700 additional copies under special ruling, making a total for both committees of 5,700 copies. In addition, the *United States Daily*, which has a circulation in every state in the union and twenty-two foreign countries, published the hearings in twenty-four consecutive issues, and the *Congressional Digest*, a magazine to which members of Congress and cabinet officers often contribute, devoted most of May issue to the discussion of the Education Bill.

The Research Division prepared especially for the committee in charge of the joint hearing a 64-page bulletin which is a statement of the purposes and provisions of the bill and a presentation of facts and arguments bearing upon the need for enactment of the measure. This bulletin met a real need and it has had a wide distribution.

ACTION OF THE EDUCATION COMMITTEES OF CONGRESS

On March 11, 1926, Senator Phipps of Colorado introduced a bill (S. 3533) "to provide for the better definition and extension of the purpose of the Bureau of Education and for other purposes." No hearing was held on this bill and on May 6 it was favorably reported from the Senate Committee on Education and Labor. Everywhere pressure was increasing to do something to remedy the national situation in education. Evidently the reporting of this bill seemed to those in charge, after considering the bills before them, to entail the least political harm in this year of strenuous political activity. It is regarded in Congress as a mere political gesture.

The House Committee on Education took no action on the Education Bill. Congressman Daniel A. Reed, chairman of this committee, on May 5 made the following statement which undoubtedly points the way for the activities in the near future of the friends of this measure.

It is evident that sentiment is much stronger for the bill in its present form than it was as originally introduced and, in my opinion, it will be increasingly stronger as its provisions are studied and better understood. Between now and December, 1926, each member of the House will have an opportunity to ascertain the sentiment in his district and he will be in a position to register accurately the will of his constituents when he returns. In view of the rapidly crystallizing sentiment in support of this bill, I feel that a vote at this time would be premature and unfair to its proponents who should have the benefit that will come from a thorough understanding of its provisions by the public.

THE ASSOCIATION'S TASK FOR THE IMMEDIATE FUTURE

Education in the Congress of the United States has been sponsored in the past by men of notable achievement, who by reason of their devotion to

this cause, were largely responsible for the passage of educational bills of far-reaching import to the American people. It is safe to say that Congress in no period in our history has furnished more conspicuous, or more devoted, unselfish leadership to the cause of education than that which our Association so proudly proclaims in the authors of the Education Bill—Senator Charles Curtis of Kansas, majority floor leader of the Senate, and Congressman Daniel A. Reed of New York, chairman of the House Committee on Education. The Field Secretary has kept in close touch throughout the year with these leaders in Congress and wishes to express profound appreciation for the courtesy and consideration extended at all times to her and to the Association. In discussing the legislative situation with her recently Senator Curtis said, "Any organization is as strong in legislation in Washington as it is active in the congressional districts and no stronger." About the same time, Congressman Reed gave her the following statement:

After talking with many members of Congress, including some of the leaders, I am satisfied that there is more favorable sentiment for the Curtis-Reed Bill than at any time since this measure has been before Congress. It is perfectly evident that there is a growing sentiment in favor of this legislation, and the one thing that will have to be demonstrated in order to insure early and favorable consideration of the bill is a sentiment "back home" favorable to it.

Happily the Education Bill has passed beyond the debatable stage among those responsible for the development of public education in this country, and the educational forces are united in support of this legislation as never before.

The next stage, not less important than the first, has been reached and the time has now come for every teacher at his post to do his duty. Plans for future work are being submitted to the Legislative Commission at this meeting for their approval. It is believed, that these plans if carried out in full, will reward our efforts with victory.

In working out these plans the secretary has had the benefit of counsel and advice throughout the year from the chairman of the Legislative Commission and several of the members who live in the vicinity of Washington as well as other interested persons from Ohio, Pennsylvania, and New York who have recently been in the National Capital.

The national organizations supporting the Education Bill with their membership are listed that it may be easier to visualize the task before us.

National Education Association.....	158,000
American Federation of Teachers.....	9,000
American Federation of Labor.....	2,877,297
National Committee for a Department of Education.....	100
National Council of Women.....	(1)
National Congress of Parents and Teachers.....	900,000
General Federation of Women's Clubs.....	2,800,000
National League of Women Voters.....	(2)
Supreme Council, Scottish Rite of Freemasonry, Southern Jurisdiction,	
United States	300,000
International Council of Religious Education.....	(3)
National Council of Jewish Women.....	55,000

National Woman's Christian Temperance Union.....	500,000
American Association of University Women.....	25,000
National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs....	40,000
General Grand Chapter, Order of the Eastern Star.....	1,800,000
National Board Young Women's Christian Associations.....	500,000
National Women's Trade Union League.....	500,000
National Society, Daughters of the American Revolution.....	153,800
National Federation of Music Clubs.....	
American Library Association.....	7,000
American Vocational Association.....	1,690
Woman's Relief Corps.....	
Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America.....	(4)
National Kindergarten Association.....	
American Home Economics Association.....	8,000
American Hellenic Educational Progressive Association.....	10,000
American Nurses' Association.....	50,000
Osteopathic Women's National Association.....	700
Junior Order of American Mechanics.....	600,000
(1) 30 national organizations.....	(3) 36 Protestant organizations.
(2) Organizations in 44 states.....	(4) 30 Protestant denominations.

Their support of the Education Bill is whole-hearted and sincere. A majority of these organizations are represented in every community in America. Our task is to join hands with these friends, furnish the leadership where necessary and register on Capitol Hill their overwhelming approval of a Federal Department of Education.

The whole question now resolves itself into a matter of individual responsibility. Are we, the teachers of this nation, equal to the task? It may be a long fight. Have we the courage and the endurance to stand by our guns until the battle is won? Space will not permit a review of the Association's historic struggles for great causes in days gone by, but no one familiar with that glorious record will doubt for a moment that the teachers of America are "enlisted for the duration of the struggle." As a matter of fact, they have just begun to fight. They have heroically faced tasks far more difficult than this one and have borne without flinching burdens which called for greater endurance than will ever be demanded by this obligation.

REPORT OF THE BUSINESS DIVISION

HAROLD A. ALLAN, DIRECTOR

The following report summarizes the work of the Business Division for the year 1925-26.

The activities of the Business Division may be divided as follows: (1) Headquarters business, including: (a) purchasing, (b) approval, distribution, and analysis of accounts, (c) employment, (d) general typing and clerical service, (e) shipping and mailing. (2) Business incident to printing and publications, including multigraph and addressograph service. (3) Property. (4) Journal advertising. (5) Conventions, including: (a) organization, (b) business details, (c) exhibits.

HEADQUARTERS BUSINESS

Purchasing—All purchases are handled through a system of requisition and purchase order. Material of common use is carried in a general stock, which is distributed as the institutional requirements arise. Stock and material are charged against the division or activity to which they are issued. A complete stock record system is maintained.

Approval, distribution, and analysis of accounts—Bills rendered to the Association are examined and approved in the Business Division. All expense is distributed under the several appropriation heads. Such analyses and statements as will assist in a more intimate knowledge of the finances of the Association are prepared from time to time.

Employment—Each division has a permanent staff to carry on its normal work. Temporary employees are assigned as demands arise. Methods of placement and assignment are such that extra loads in any activity are carried without a proportionate increase in the number of employees of the Association. The permanent staff of the Association includes forty-five persons; the number of temporary employees has varied from a minimum of twelve to a maximum of fifty-nine for any one week.

General typing and clerical service—A system of requisition and work order covers service given in the typing section. Charges for such are distributed among the divisions or activities for which the work is done. The same situation holds in the matter of service rendered in the multigraph and addressograph sections.

Shipping and mailing—An increased output of publications has largely added to the work in this section, but economies in system and direction have enabled this to be carried on without additional expense.

PRINTING

Estimates and bids are obtained for publications of the Association. On larger projects such as the *Journal*, *Research Bulletins*, and the *Annual Proceedings*, formal contracts are made. Printing costs compare favorably with those of preceding years.

Smaller forms, envelopes, letter heads, and circular letters are printed in the multigraph section.

PROPERTY

The property and equipment of the Association are in excellent condition. The growth of the Association requires much additional equipment, however. As authorized by the Board of Trustees, minor alterations will be made this summer for the better accommodation of the headquarters work. The rearrangement of offices, already approved, will permit the maximum use of building space. Further extension within the present building is impossible, however, and a definite building program to meet the growth of the Association must soon be formulated.

ADVERTISING

Progress in advertising has been satisfactory. Every effort has been made to carry advertising of a type that has definite professional value to the readers of the *Journal*. Preliminaries have been completed for a substantial increase in advertising rates. The success of *Journal* advertising cannot fail to reflect favorably upon that of other educational publications and to impress upon the advertiser the potentialities of the school field.

In comparative terms the following figures illustrate recent advertising growth:

Year	No. of issues included	No. of lines of advertising	Advertising Income
1923-24.....	10	90,713	\$53,208.60
1924-25.....	10	101,920	60,774.57
1925-26.....	9	111,842	70,326.83

CONVENTIONS

Organization and business details—The preliminaries of convention organization are entrusted to the Business Division. Assistance is given in preparations for local committee organization, in arranging meeting places, exhibits, state headquarters, registration, housing, and printing, and responsibility is assumed for many business details.

Exhibits—Especially successful exhibits were held in Indianapolis and Washington. The usual convention exhibits have been suspended at the Philadelphia meeting because of inability to secure space closely related to the daily convention activities and because of the many educational attractions offered by the Sesquicentennial Exposition.

PERSONNEL

To carry on the work of the Business Division the following assistants are employed:

Business office—one assistant for mailing section and details of headquarters coordination; one assistant for advertising; one assistant for exhibits and financial work; one telephone operator and reception clerk; one stenographer (temporary).

Mailing section—two regular shipping clerks and from one to three temporary helpers.

Addressograph section—three permanent operators and from three to fourteen temporary operators.

Typing section—one assistant in charge, one permanent typist and from one to twenty-three temporary typists.

Multigraph section—one regular operator.

All of the above have given faithful and intelligent service. The work of the division is so closely related to practically all activities of the Association that the growth of the division automatically parallels that of the Association. Larger responsibilities and increased demands have been met cheerfully and efficiently.

REPORT OF THE DIVISION OF PUBLICATIONS

JOY ELMER MORGAN, DIRECTOR

The professional awakening—The present awakening of the teaching profession is one of the most significant movements in the history of education. Its real meaning is only beginning to be apparent. Whereas the forces that liberate life and make for freedom were once in the hands of armies, kings, and royal courts, they are now in the hands of the people themselves. Carrying out the ideals of such founding fathers as Franklin, Jefferson, and Washington, our American states built up systems of education. By the end of the nineteenth century, these systems had drawn millions of children into schoolrooms ill-fitted for educational purposes under the guidance of teachers with little more education than the children themselves.

It is surprising that the nation was willing to tolerate such conditions as long as it did. The beginnings of a new day were apparent even before the War years, and War needs emphasized the shortcomings of the schools. The teaching profession is now leading the way in a movement to bring to all children the advantages enjoyed by the more favored. The wave of professional awakening is emphasized by the chart showing the growth of membership in the National Education Association from fewer than ten thousand in 1918 to 160,000 in 1926. It is revealed in the growth of state associations from 65,993 in 1908 to 572,182 in 1926. It is indicated also by growth in publications as shown in the accompanying table.

GROWTH OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION AS INDICATED BY TOTAL OUTPUT OF ITS PUBLICATIONS¹

Year	Pages	Year	Pages
1857	344	1920-21	22,951,650
1870-71	35,530	1921-22	63,911,500
1880-81	134,166	1922-23	110,879,430
1890-91	5,085,346	1923-24	110,080,000
1900-01	1,886,588	1924-25	109,548,200
1910-11	7,765,716	1925-26	129,682,256

¹ Figures for 1857 to 1910-11 are obtained by multiplying the number of active members for each year by the number of pages in the Proceedings.

Why the Association's publications are significant—During the school year 1925-26, the National Education Association circulated more pages of educational literature than during the first fifty years of its existence. The significance of this achievement lies not in the production of more than 129,000,000 pages of printed matter, making the Association the largest publisher in the world of literature on the problems of the teaching profession. It lies rather in the fact that this vast output is the expression of the profession at work on its problems. School keepers are turning into crusaders for a fair start in life for every boy and girl. Principals are making themselves expert managers. School superintendents are be-

coming educational engineers. The curriculum is turning its face forward. Education is growing into a science. The race is rising to a new appreciation of the possibilities of childhood. To be in the forefront of this advance is the privilege and responsibility of the National Education Association. It is a privilege that has not been easily or quickly won. Generations of the finest educational workers in the nation have toiled to forge its program and fashion its policies. To study its resolutions over the seven decades of its activity is to review American ideals in the making. Taking the child as its guiding star, it has stood with remarkable consistence for measures to improve childhood and parenthood. It was the first of the great professions to recognize the worth of women—to acknowledge that the whole human race could do a better job of thinking than half of it. It stands for democracy not only as a principle of government, but as an ideal to guide all the relations of human beings working and living together. These and other ideals of the profession reach the masses of teachers and citizens primarily through its publications and publicity.

The Proceedings for 1925 record two remarkable conventions. The program of the Superintendents' meeting at Cincinnati gave compelling emphasis to the necessity of education for citizenship and the importance of beauty in daily life. The annual convention at Indianapolis brought together a summary of educational progress during the first quarter of the twentieth century that must long stand as one of the great landmarks in the educational advance. A rearrangement of the contents of the 1925 volume and the addition of historical material make the book more attractive and usable.

As other publications of the Association multiply, the Proceedings will become more and more a basic record of the official doings of the Association and its departments. There might well be added a section dealing with allied educational organizations. For example, if each allied organization were represented by a page giving its officers, the place and dates of its meeting, and a list of its publications and other pertinent facts the worth of the volume would be increased. Students everywhere would turn to it as the annual sourcebook of organizational activities in education.

Growth in department publications—To unite all branches of the profession is an ideal that has grown since the first great integrating movement in 1870 when teachers, superintendents, and trainers of teachers pooled their forces by uniting the three organizations that had grown up separately to represent these interests. During recent years improvement in department affairs has been marked. Department self-government, separate dues to finance their own activities, and the development of publications are the three major items in this advance. The fact that these publications are cleared through one central office encourages better editing and distribution and makes the fruits of department efforts available to the whole Association. It is gratifying that this year there comes to the Division, the publications of the Department of Teachers Colleges. Adequate training of the teaching army is a gigantic task. The good work of this Depart-

PUBLICATIONS of the National Education Association, the largest publisher in the world of literature on the problems of the teaching profession

The Journal

The official organ of an awakening profession

Proceedings

A treasurehouse of ideals and aims from 1857 to 1926

Research Bulletin

Makes facts on education available in time for use in determining policies

Yearbooks of the Department of Superintendence

Provide clearinghouse for widespread revision of curriculum

Yearbooks and Bulletins of the Department of Elementary School Principals

These publications have elevated the elementary school principalship to a new plane of effectiveness

Yearbook and Report of the Department of Classroom Teachers

The enlarging vision of this Department shows that teachers are assuming responsibility for their own improvement

Publications of Other Departments and Committees

The growth of departments and the development of publications dealing with their special problems is improving practice in important fields of education

ment is therefore unusually significant and its growth is of the utmost importance.

The open door to public sentiment—To achieve its high aims the Association has always relied on methods worthy of those aims. It has kept the public in its confidence. It has relied on informed opinion to insure sound educational policy. Its press service enjoys to an unusual extent the cordial cooperation of newspapers and magazines.

Too much publicity defeats its own end. The development of special publicity activities by private business concerns as well as by various public agencies has already led to a movement among newspapers to protect themselves from exploitation by publicity agents. The schools are not likely to be affected by this movement. They are in a class by themselves. They belong to all the people and are not conducted for private gain. They deal with the community's greatest human interest problem—the growth of its children. Educational publicity should keep the attention of the public focused on the children rather than on the mechanics of education.

Publicity is but a logical outgrowth of the teaching function of the schools. It is an effort to educate the non-school population. It is extension work in education. Sound publicity emphasizes the highest ideals. Its big purpose is to get both the successes of the schools and their needs before the public.

The development of radio opens a new medium to educational forces, which may well mark the beginning of a new era as did the development of movable type. The use of radio in connection with annual conventions widens the Association's audience many-fold. Officers of the White House staff reported that more letters were received following the broadcasting of President Coolidge's speech before the Department of Superintendence, on Washington's birthday, than in connection with any other of the President's addresses. During the Philadelphia convention, there will be eighteen radio addresses, including the president of the Association, past presidents, and officers of the departments.

The development of associational journalism—The changed spirit of the profession is well expressed in a new development in educational journalism—the growth of the Association Journal. The official organs of state and national associations, which are sent regularly to members of those associations, have become interpreters of the objectives, programs, procedures, and opportunities of the expanding educational program of America. Associational journalism thus becomes the champion of the policies and ideals of the teaching profession—now the largest public service group in society. With the growth of technical information and professional ideals, society has come to look to its professional groups for leadership in their respective fields. To the doctors it turns for the improvement of health; to the lawyers, for a better legal practice; to the clergy, for a revitalized religion; and to the teachers for a development of educational policies.

PUBLICITY

NATIONAL Education Association Press Service interprets the Association and its ideals for the profession and the public; announces and reports conventions; arouses enthusiasm by telling of worthwhile activities

Widens interest in two large conventions by gathering programs, speeches, interviews, and photographs for use by newspapers throughout the country

Calls attention of magazine editors by special letters to unusual articles and books on education

Maintains a large collection of photographs, electros, and mats, covering educational leaders, cartoons, graphs, and charts for newspaper use

Advances movement for a Department of Education by keeping before editors of magazines and newspapers progress of the measure

Sends lists of special honor schools and life members to state and local magazines and newspapers

Sends out announcements of important features of the Journal, Proceedings, Reports, Research Bulletins, and other Publications

Arranges radio programs in connection with conventions and American Education Week and encourages the use of this new tool as a means of keeping the successes and needs of the schools before the people

The recognition of this relationship by both the public and the profession explains the growth of professional organization. With that growth has come a demand for a new kind of journalism. Associational journalism differs from all other in that it exists not for private gain or to promote the projects or ideals of one individual but as the agent of the profession itself. Associations, both state and national, are fast passing beyond the stage where their chief activity is the management of an annual meeting. Programs of work are carried on during the entire year. To interpret these programs to the rank and file who are in the end responsible for them is the primary function of associational journalism.

How the representative character of The Journal of the National Education Association is maintained—The policies of the National Education Association have been in process of development for nearly seventy years. They are at present in the hands of an assembly and a board of directors representing the entire profession in all the states and territories. An executive committee and a board of trustees act for these larger bodies when they are not in session and assume responsibility for carrying out policies that have been adopted. Special commissions, like the Legislative Commission, have responsibility for particular features of the Association's program, such as the promotion of the movement for a Department of Education with a Secretary in the President's Cabinet. To interpret the body of policy built up by these various agencies to the entire membership is the task of *The Journal*. The office staff is aided by an Editorial Council to which tentative *Journal* plans and projects are submitted for consideration.

Manuscripts are submitted to several persons for critical judgment, before being used in *The Journal* or returned to their authors. The great increase in the number of manuscripts received is a wholesome indication that the effort of the Association to have the profession at work is bearing fruit. To aid in securing better material, the Division has prepared a special information sheet for authors, explaining that *The Journal* aims to include only material which:

- (a) Advances the policies for which the Association stands
- (b) Appeals as far as possible to all *Journal* readers
- (c) Is clearly written in simple English
- (d) Is accurate in facts cited
- (e) Does not claim more space than the topic justifies in a journal devoted to the whole profession
- (f) Does not cover ground too recently covered by other articles in *The Journal*
- (g) Helps to round out *The Journal's* treatment of the entire field of education
- (h) Helps to unify the profession in its attitudes and working policies.

THE Journal of the National Education Association arouses the profession by keeping before members the ideals, policies, and activities of the Association

Responsible to the Association through the Executive Committee, Board of Directors, and Representative Assembly

Gets advice in the development of policies and plans from the Editorial Council

Carries regularly to 160,000 teachers, school officers, and citizens, material on the aims and needs of education

Is the voice of the Association to its members and keeps before them Association policies, resolutions, and programs

Journal plans for 1926-27—In the plans for 1926-27, a considerable portion of each number is built around the idea "The Profession at Work on its Problems." There have been selected for special emphasis (1) scientific contributions to the new curriculum; (2) character and the school, and (3) building beauty into everyday life. These themes were selected after an examination of the educational literature produced during the year and conferences and correspondence with many educational workers. Specialists in each field were asked to suggest authors and subjects. The material for these three notable series is now in hand. It will be useful in fall membership campaigns. Principals may make it the basis of faculty meetings for the year. It will encourage the use of *The Journal* in teacher-training institutions.

The Journal is developing a policy for dealing with new books which will make each issue stand for a specific book project to which the profession may look from year to year for reliable information based on the widest professional judgment that it is possible to obtain. Certain features, like the annual list of best books in education, have been so well received as to suggest the extension of the plan. The judgment of professors of education, practicing teachers, librarians, and research workers as to the best literature should be made available to the entire profession.

The Journal staff is also working out, in cooperation with the Division of Research, a scheme for reporting regularly certain vital facts about education which are of importance to the entire profession. The collection of educational statistics has not kept pace with the growth of education or with the advance in agriculture, industry, and other fields where statistical information is used in the development of policies. In several of the fields in which statistical data are desired, they are not available in time for current use. One field in which *The Journal* has published statistics for several years is that of the growth of state and national education associations. Among others to be added during 1926-27 are attendance of teachers at summer schools; improvement in teacher preparation; teachers salaries by states; and expenditures per pupil in average daily attendance.

The Association should lead in simplified practice—The activities of the Department of Commerce, under the administration of Secretary Hoover, have shown the huge advantages to both producers and consumers of simplified practices in various industrial and technical fields. Similar and even greater gains are possible in the field of education. Millions of American school children are now carrying an unnecessarily heavy burden because of clumsy features in our systems of spelling and of weights and measures. Ill-advised and hasty reform is neither desirable nor possible, but steady progress in the direction of simpler usages is of greatest importance. The Association should exert a steady influence in the direction of greater simplicity in spelling, punctuation, capitalization, typography, and the use of degrees and titles in printed matter. It is recommended that as an immediate step, the Association use in its publications the twelve simpler spellings, most of which have become accepted usage since they were first adopted by the Association years ago. The Association should also lend its influence toward the adoption of metric standards of weights and measures as now proposed in several measures before Congress. It is one of the missions of *The Journal* to give effect to such policies.

Conclusion and recommendations—To do justice to the expanding publishing activities of the Association will require increases in staff as embodied in the proposals submitted to the Budget Committee. There is recommended the addition of one worker to rank as assistant and a suitable increase in clerical force and in allowance for travel and other expenses. In these recommendations the Director has kept in mind the desire of the Executive Committee to maintain the staff on the highest plane of efficiency with the minimum expenditure.

The privilege of working at headquarters is made greater because in the management of its staff the Association practices the principles which it advocates for the profession. In such matters as tenure, salary, working conditions, and mutual relationships, it is an admirable example of what should obtain in the best schools. Everywhere one finds primary emphasis on the fine ideals of the teaching service and on the "cause." So long as this remains true, the Association is assured growth in membership, in prestige, and in service to the profession.

REPORT OF THE RESEARCH DIVISION

JOHN K. NORTON, DIRECTOR

The output of the Research Division both as to quantity and quality was superior in 1925-26 to that of any year since its establishment in 1922. It is believed, however, that the record of the past year will be excelled during 1926-27.

DIVISION OF TIME

The resources of the Division of Research during 1925-26 have been divided as follows: (a) forty percent to independent research investigations and the preparation of the *Research Bulletin*, (b) fifteen percent to assisting the research activities of the Association's Departments, (c) ten percent to research activities of the Association's committees, (d) twenty percent to supplying information and other service to members and others in response to special requests, and (e) fifteen percent to work for which other Headquarters Divisions are primarily responsible.

According to the above statement approximately seventy-five percent of the Division's time is going to research activities. As the Division's resources grow, this percent should be increased.

WORK ACCOMPLISHED

RESEARCH BULLETIN. The following issues of the *Research Bulletin* have been prepared during the past year: (a) *Taking Stock of the Schools*. Ten thousand copies of this Education Week issue of the *Bulletin* were printed. All but 200 copies have been sold. (b) *Keeping Pace with the Advancing Curriculum*. Two editions and a total of 23,000 copies of this issue were necessary to supply the demand. This number has exercised an important influence in improving the quality of the work performed by hundreds of local curriculum revision committees. (c) *The Ability of the States to Support Education*. The data in this issue are already playing an important part in the drafting of the legislative programs of a considerable number of states whose legislatures meet during the coming calendar year. (d) *Facts on State School Finance* will shortly be off the press. It presents pertinent comparable data concerning important phases of state school finance and other material that should play a significant role in the sessions of the 40 state legislatures which meet during 1927. (e) *Handbook on Major Educational Issues*. This edition of the *Bulletin*, to be issued early in September, briefly summarizes a number of major issues bearing upon school progress. The facts it presents and the references to pertinent material should make it valuable for use during Education Week, in teachers' meetings, and in other study groups.

The growth of the *Research Bulletin* is objectively indicated by the figures in the following table:

RESEARCH BULLETIN—INCOME AND COST

Year	Research Bulletin Income from:			Cost of printing and distributing Research Bulletin	Percent that income was of cost of printing and distributing
	Subscriptions ¹	Separate Sales	All sources		
1	2	3	4	5	6
1923-24	\$3,774	\$874.16	\$4,648.16	\$7,692.63	60
1924-25	3,774	1,750.10	5,524.10	6,554.57	84
1925-26	4,804	5,187.34	9,991.34	6,867.18	145

¹ One dollar of each \$5 National Education Association membership is for a subscription to the Research Bulletin.

Cooperation with Departments—The Division of Research has cooperated with most of the more active Departments of the Association in the development of their research programs. These pieces of work should be noted: (a) Working with the Commission on the Curriculum of the Department of Superintendence, the Cooperative Plan for Curriculum Revision has been developed until it now involves the participation of 300 school systems. The Fourth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence, *The Nation at Work on the Public School Curriculum*, is one of the outcomes of the functioning of this plan. The first edition of 7000 copies of this Yearbook has already been exhausted and a reprint of 5000 copies has just been completed. (b) The Educational Research Service has been conducted in cooperation with the Department of Superintendence. This is a self-supporting service subscribed to by 149 school systems at \$25 per annum. The service is steadily growing. Its future development will reduce the percent of the Research Division's budget devoted to supplying information in response to requests from members. (c) Some of the sections of the *Fifth Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals* and of the *First Yearbook of the Department of Classroom Teachers* were prepared in the Division of Research.

Cooperation with Committees—The Division has aided the research activities of a number of the committees of the Association. Some of the more important pieces of work are as follows: (a) Preparation, under the leadership of the Committee of One Hundred on Teacher Retirement Allowances, of the report to be presented on this subject at the Philadelphia meeting. This report with some revision will shortly be issued as a number of the *Research Bulletin*. (b) Data presented at the Philadelphia meeting in the report of the Committee on Teacher Tenure were assembled by the Research Division working under the leadership of the chairman of that Committee. (c) Working in cooperation with the Association's Committee on the Behavior Problem Child, the Division aided in assembling material contained in the report of this Committee presented at the Philadelphia meeting.

Correspondence and Information Service—It is estimated that the Division's correspondence section answered approximately 7500 letters during the year. These letters came principally from Association members and

requested a wide variety of information. The replies often involved the assembling of exact data to be used by various organizations and committees of teachers in the development of programs of work for which they were responsible.

Cooperation with Other Headquarters Divisions—The Research Division frequently finds it possible to render service to other Headquarters Divisions in the development of the Association's work. Some of the specific pieces of work that have been accomplished in the last year are these: (a) Preparation of a sixty-four page pamphlet entitled, *The Education Bill*, and other material for use in the Association's legislative program. (b) Preparation of material for the *Journal*. A considerable number of articles have already been prepared for use in the *Journal* during the coming year. Plans have already been completed which involve an extension of the policy of cooperation between the Division of Publications and the Division of Research in the preparation of material for the *Journal*. (c) The library of the Association during the past year was financed out of the Research Division budget both as to personnel and equipment. This library is giving daily service of an increasingly important type to all Headquarters Divisions.

FUTURE DEVELOPMENT

The Department of Superintendence at the February, 1926 meeting passed the following resolution, which deserves thoughtful consideration:

The Department of Superintendence would express warm appreciation of the great and important service rendered by the Division of Research and by the committees and other agencies that have cooperated with it in the publication of the yearbooks on the curriculum and the various research bulletins dealing with pressing problems of school finance and administration. These publications mark the beginning of a new epoch in the development of American education; they place at the immediate command of school superintendents the results of research and of nation-wide experience on critical problems of school administration. They are proving to be of great value in the stimulation and guidance of professional interest and improvement among teachers and school officials and they are demonstrating clearly the possibility and effectiveness of cooperative effort throughout the nation in the improvement of public education.

We therefore strongly recommend: (1) That the principle of cooperating study and research be continued and its application extended to include not only school systems and agencies within the Department but also other agencies and organizations engaged in the study of similar problems; (2) that so far as practicable the work of these agencies be assisted and coordinated by the Division of Research; (3) that research be extended to include not only current matters of importance in school administration but also the definition and study of problems of education whose adequate solution must extend in many cases over a period of years; and, (4) that the Division of Research be organized and adequately staffed and financially supported for the larger service and responsibility which the adoption of the foregoing policy would place upon it.¹

¹ The Resolutions Committee was made up as follows: Payson Smith, chairman, Nicholas Bauer, Hector L. Belisle, William J. Bickett, George N. Child, Harris Hart, Henry W. Holmes, Hilda Hughes, Belle M. Ryan, Leslie B. Sipple, A. J. Stout, John W. Withers.

The work of the Division to date makes it logical to proceed along the lines of development suggested in this resolution.

It is believed that the objectives of the Division stated in previous reports and indicated by the work accomplished during the past year should be continued. As additional resources become available, the percent of the Division's energy devoted to independent investigations should be increased. This does not mean, however, that opportunities for cooperative research should be overlooked. The work accomplished by the Division in cooperation with the Department of Superintendence and with the Association's Committee of One Hundred on Teacher Retirement Allowances is among the most fruitful it has performed within the last year.

The research activities of the Division should center on a few major school problems. For the next year, at least, its investigations should be confined to these fields: (a) School finance, (b) curriculum development, and (c) teacher personnel problems. A number of investigations have already been completed by the Division in the first of these two fields. The work in these fields should be continued. During 1926-27, however, several investigations should be initiated in the teacher personnel field. The scientific study of how to recruit and keep at maximum efficiency a capable personnel for the teaching profession has only just begun. The Division has outlined a series of investigations that might be made in this field with great benefit to the profession and the Association.

It is recommended that provision be made for initiating work in this field in cooperation with teacher training institutions during 1926-27 by adding one full-time professionally trained person with the rank of Assistant Director to the Research Division staff.

It is also recommended that the appropriation for the salary of a full-time librarian be included in the 1926-27 budget. Such an appropriation was made in the budget for the current year. A satisfactory person for the place could not be located at the figure allowed. Further search will doubtless result in locating the type of person needed in this important position.

COORDINATION OF RESEARCH ACTIVITIES

It was suggested early in the development of the Division that it should act as a clearinghouse for the results of educational research in fields of particular importance to the profession. Definite progress has been made during the past year in achieving this objective. The Division is rapidly coming to the place where it may be looked upon as the coordinating agency for educational research in those fields that are of peculiar interest to the teaching profession. This work involves the maintenance of close relationships with a number of important national agencies and organizations. The Division has played an important rôle in the development of the work of the National Committee for Research in Secondary Education sponsored by the United States Bureau of Education. Several pieces of work have been completed by the Division in cooperation with this Committee, one of which involved a survey of current research studies in the field of

secondary education. Close contacts are maintained with a number of important state and city research bureaus as well as those connected with higher institutions. Many of the state associations are already organized for effective research work. The Division is gradually building up a cooperative plan with these associations, the object of which is to bring about a mass study and attack on certain common educational problems. Among a number of other organizations with which cordial relationships are maintained, looking toward coordinated action, are the National Society for the Study of Education, the Phi Delta Kappa Honorary Franchant Director to the Research Division staff.

THE DIVISION'S LARGER PURPOSE

Each year research makes education a more exact science. We may confidently look forward to the time when the teacher will predict the results of his work with far greater exactness than is possible at the present time. Teachers associations are destined to play an increasingly important rôle in contributing to the growing body of exact knowledge upon which the science of education is being built. The National Education Association and three state associations have already created divisions of research. Upon these divisions rests the responsibility for setting the standards which will determine the significance of the research activities supported by voluntary teachers' associations. This responsibility is a heavy one. It is one that the Division of Research of the National Education Association should constantly have in mind in order that its contribution may be of the greatest possible significance.

REPORT OF THE DIVISION OF CLASSROOM SERVICE

AGNES WINN, DIRECTOR

The Division of Classroom Service was established three years ago last fall for the purpose of assisting classroom teachers with their professional problems. There are four channels through which the Director has aimed to carry out this purpose: The Department of Classroom Teachers, local organizations of teachers, local publications, and correspondence with leaders among classroom teachers. Progress has been made, and from letters received there is reason to feel that teachers are appreciative of this service rendered to them by the Association. Other activities have been carried on in the Division, but service to the teacher has always been kept in the foreground.

The work for the year just ended, June 30, 1926, may be summarized as follows:

Department of Classroom Teachers—It has been a privilege to work with the president and the other officers of this Department and a close relationship has been established between them and this division. Much of the clerical work of the Department—including the sending out of letters, editing and distribution of reports, collection of material for com-

mittee chairmen, and the editing of the First Yearbook—has been carried on by the Division.

Help has been given to the officers in their regional conference plans and reports of these conferences have been kept on file. Special assistance was given to the president in her plans for an extensive field trip through correspondence with officers of teachers' organizations and superintendents in cities included in her itinerary. According to the enthusiastic reports received, the conferences held and the professional contacts made on this trip will mean much to the future growth and development of the Department.

The details of the Department's activities at the summer meeting and also those connected with the winter conference were looked after through this division.

Other departments, allied organizations, and committees—Following out the policy of assigning members of the headquarters' staff to look after the interests of the various departments of the Association, as recommended by the Secretary three years ago, secretarial help has been given to twelve departments. The help given includes correspondence throughout the year, aid in preparing their annual programs, and in other convention activities, information service to officers, and assistance in solution of special problems. Similar help has been given to several committees and allied organizations. Special clerical help has been given to the Committee of One Hundred on Classroom Teachers' Problems in the study of the problems of the profession and collection of material for its annual report. The sustained interest of these groups is an important factor in the growth of the Association.

Mention should be made of the handling of the report "General Practice in Kindergarten Education in the United States," which has been widely distributed throughout the country. The director has also had a share in the preliminary work of organization of the proposed Department of Junior High School Administration.

Teacher organizations—The aim of this division, to establish a close relationship with local organizations of teachers, has received fresh impetus during the past year from the hearty response of organization leaders to letters and inquiries sent out. In the fall an inquiry was sent to more than one hundred local associations asking for information regarding their activities and membership. The replies to the questionnaire furnished valuable information that has been used in assisting other organizations with their problems and in the preparation of a chart which has been mailed to those answering the inquiry.

A card file containing the names of the officers of these organizations and other valuable data is kept, and another file containing the addresses of teachers by states has been organized. Much information for this file is secured through the registration of regional conferences.

Local publications—Another point of contact with the larger groups of teachers is the local bulletin published monthly or quarterly by many of

the local organizations. Copies of these publications are kept on file and are regularly looked over, as they afford an excellent way of gaining information relative to the programs, social and professional, of the groups they represent. Correspondence is carried on with the editors, and special articles, reprints from *The Journal*, and data on the status of the Education Bill are sent to them from time to time. A complete list of such bulletins is furnished each year to the editorial staffs to be used as an exchange list.

Annual convention—The Director of this division has worked with the Divisions of Business and Publications and with the Philadelphia committee on pre-convention activities, this division serving as a clearinghouse for the programs of departments, allied organizations, and committees. Copy for the Official Program was assembled, and a method of handling tickets for breakfasts, luncheons, and dinners held during the convention has been worked out for the convenience of those in attendance. Assistance has also been given the President of the Association on the general program plans.

The Journal and publicity work—Several articles on the departments of the Association and committees have been prepared for *The Journal*. Articles on the Association have been compiled and published in the *Americana Annual*, *The World Almanac*, and educational journals. The N. E. A. Booklet of Information, that has been widely used in soliciting memberships, has been revised and additional information included. A copy was mailed to other national organizations for their files.

General correspondence and information service—Besides the correspondence with special groups already mentioned, requests for almost every type of information have been answered. The collection of data for a single request often involves hours of work, but it is time well spent, for individual service of this kind cannot help but have a tremendous influence on the attitude of educators toward the Association.

Other activities—The Association is often asked to send representatives to conferences that are being held in Washington. This Division has served in this capacity on various occasions. As the alternate of the legislative secretary on the Women's Joint Congressional Committee the Director attends the meetings of this organization and keeps in touch with important congressional legislation. A number of engagements to address parent-teacher associations have been filled.

In conclusion—With the growth in numbers and expansion of the Association's program further opportunities for service will develop and this division hopes to be always ready to meet them, for "new occasions teach new duties." It has been a privilege to be associated with the members of the headquarters' staff and to have had a part in the activities of the year just closed—a year marked by a substantial increase in membership and by the general public's interest in the objectives for which the Association stands.

REPORT OF DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE AND DIVISION OF
ADMINISTRATIVE SERVICE

SHERWOOD D. SHANKLAND, EXECUTIVE SECRETARY

The Department of Superintendence—The formal report of this Department for the calendar year 1925 was published in the Fourth Yearbook, which was distributed at the winter meeting in Washington. The financial statement for the year ended December 31, 1925, showed income of \$28,360.37, and expenditures of \$22,248.04. The cash balance at the end of the year was \$8620.03. The principal source of revenue is from annual membership dues of \$5. The enrolment for the year was 3279 members, an increase of 809 over the previous year. By mutual agreement, the profits from the commercial exhibit at the winter meeting are divided equally between this Department and the parent Association, each organization thus deriving funds for convention purposes. At Washington the Department received \$6830.68 from this source.

The Commission on the Curriculum—The Cleveland Convention of the Department of Superintendence in 1923 authorized the appointment of the Commission on the Curriculum. Two Yearbooks have been issued under the auspices of this Commission. *Research in Constructing the Elementary School Curriculum* was the title of the 1925 Yearbook. *The Nation at Work on the Public School Curriculum* was published in 1926. The willingness of outstanding educational leaders to cooperate in promoting this effort in the interest of a better course of study for the boys and girls of America has been most encouraging.

At a recent meeting in New York, the Commission completed plans for the 1927 Yearbook, which will be devoted to problems of the junior high school. Later, the Executive Committee of the Department of Superintendence authorized the Commission to round out its work by preparing a Yearbook on the senior high school to be ready, if possible, in 1928. The work of the Commission on the Curriculum has stimulated renewed interest in the old problem, "What schools teach, and ought to teach."

Educational Research Service—One hundred and fifty-one school systems are subscribers to the Educational Research Service of the Department of Superintendence in cooperation with the Research Division of the National Education Association. Each subscriber pays \$25 annually. This service is intended to provide a clearinghouse by which subscribers may be informed of studies actual and proposed by various research agencies. Subscribers are furnished with printed or multigraphed copies of studies not available for general distribution prepared by cities, universities, and societies. Building costs, salary distributions, time schedules, per pupil costs, budget procedure, vocational guidance, and business administration of schools are among the topics on which reports have been made recently. An effort has been made to work out some practical solution of the questionnaire problem. Some progress has been made, but conditions are still far from ideal.

The Department of Elementary School Principals—High standards of effort have characterized the Department of Elementary School Principals from its beginning. Officially recognized at Des Moines in 1921, this Department has enjoyed a steady increase in numbers and in usefulness. At present it enrolls 3181 members. The president of the Department, Ide G. Sargeant, of Paterson, New Jersey, has vigorously pushed the campaign for new members. The Fifth Yearbook, just published, entitled *Studies in the Elementary School Principalship*, should be read by every elementary school principal. The editor, Arthur S. Gist, of Seattle, Washington, has put to his credit another worthy piece of work. The Quarterly Bulletin, edited by E. Ruth Pyrtle, of Lincoln, Nebraska, has maintained a high standard of excellence.

The Division of Administrative Service—A member of the headquarters staff at Washington is assigned to care for the interests of each of the allied departments and organizations of the National Education Association. The administrative group has been assigned for my attention under the title of the Division of Administrative Service. Convention details for the fourteen allied organizations which cooperate with the Department of Superintendence in the winter meeting are handled by this division. An extensive information service is maintained for individual school administrators as well as for organizations, local, state, and national, interested in administrative questions. Requests for this type of assistance are rapidly increasing.

It has been a pleasure to participate in the work of the Association during the past year. The headquarters staff of the National Education Association has been most helpful. Encouragement and cordial support have come from every part of the country. Most important of all, the widespread interest in the problems of the profession no doubt reflects a general determination that the schools shall better serve the needs of the children and of the nation.

REPORT OF DIVISION OF RECORDS AND MEMBERSHIP

T. D. MARTIN, DIRECTOR

The Division of Records and Membership was created a year ago. Its responsibilities and staff were for the most part transferred from other Divisions. This transfer has been accomplished gradually, smoothly and in a spirit of hearty cooperation on the part of everyone involved.

The work of the Division falls under three main heads: (1) The keeping of the records; (2) The answering of inquiries regarding memberships; and (3) The promotion of membership.

Records—the records of this Division are of two general types, (a) Financial, the date and amount of dues paid by each member; (b) Mailing list, the name and address of each member for use in mailing the publications of the Association. These records are kept by a splendid staff of skilled clerks who do their best to keep the records absolutely accurate

and up-to-date. This is no small task since more than 160,000 memberships are involved. If each member of the Association will notify us of any errors which are called to his attention, this assistance will be greatly appreciated.

The splendid growth of the membership of the Association has necessitated a simplification of the records of this Division and a reorganization of the enrolment procedure. A system similar to that employed by the National Geographic Society, whereby the financial record is kept on the addressograph plate, is being installed. Under this new arrangement the responsibility for the records of certain groups will be distributed in such a way as to fix it definitely and to facilitate expansion as the membership of the Association increases.

Inquiries—The task of answering the numerous inquiries concerning dues, publications, and memberships which reach this Division is no small undertaking. Many members of the Association are unaware of the fact that the Association maintains a definite membership year, September 1 to August 31; many regard their dues as primarily a subscription to *The Journal* which expires twelve months from the date remitted, while others suppose that the Five Dollar N. E. A. membership entitles them to receive not only the publications of the Association but those of all its Departments as well.

These inquiries require individual attention if the personal interest of members in the Association is to be maintained and since the members of the Association are its assets, this phase of the work is well worth the time and careful attention which it requires.

Promotion—The promotion of membership falls under two more or less distinct forms, (a) promotion by mail, and (b) promotion by personal visits.

Throughout the past year Mr. Crabtree has very graciously continued to carry much of the responsibility for promotion by mail. The plans followed have been largely the same as those of past years, (a) "broadcasting" through superintendents, principals, officers of local organizations and other recognized leaders; (b) the encouragement of schools, cities, and countries to achieve the 100 percent goal, and (c) the Life Membership Campaign. The success of these plans is evidenced in the membership report which shows an increase of more than 20,000 members over any previous year, as well as in the financial report of the Association.

The day is largely past, if it ever did exist, when large groups of teachers can be "inspired" into the national Association by the oratory of itinerant staff members. Membership in the National Education Association, as in local and state associations, is the natural result of professional vision and professional spirit. This vision and spirit are promoted primarily by professional leadership which is strongest when exerted by those who are well known and highly respected by the teachers in their respective communities, professors in schools and departments of education, superintendents, principals, and other leaders in local organizations who have caught

the spirit of a real profession of teaching. Conferences between the Director of this Division and leaders in strategic communities, at which cooperative plans have been developed, have proved of material value and appear to be rich in possibilities for future development.

Problems—Three problems with which this Division is immediately confronted are, (1) To develop and retain a clerical staff to handle the "peak load" of more than 30,000 memberships received during each of the months of November, December, and January, without having at hand more clerks than are necessary for the average load of 10,000 memberships during each of the other nine months; (2) To acquaint members of the Association with the various memberships maintained by the Association and its Departments and with the fact that if they are to be relieved from numerous solicitations for dues, they should, when remitting their dues, indicate changes of name or address; and (3) To develop a cooperative system with local and state associations whereby teachers may enlist in local, state, and national associations at the same time.

An increasing number local and state associations are adopting the "Budget System" of collecting dues as a means of relieving their members from numerous, irritating solicitations and of securing the greatly to be desired goal, "A stabilized, all-inclusive membership." W. C. Crawford, commissioner of education in Hawaii, reports that the teachers of that territory have adopted the "Budget System" for the payment of their dues. Hawaii is the largest unit to take this step. Others of equal size are sure to follow.

Prospects—The prospects for future development are most promising. The vision of what may be accomplished by "a united profession with every member at work upon its problems" is spreading rapidly among the teachers of the nation. The raising of educational requirements for entrance upon the work of teaching provides that a larger proportion of those who enter the profession have received specialized training for their work; they have prepared themselves specifically for it; they have a fuller understanding of its significance and of its value, and hence they recognize the importance of united professional organizations which enable them to pool their strength and attain their objectives. The vision of a real profession of teaching is abroad as never before and professional associations for teachers, local, state, and national, are growing splendidly both in strength and in service.

1925—Continued

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THE SIXTH REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY

Delegates who attended the Sixty-fourth annual meeting of the National Education Association in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, June 24-July 3, 1926. The classification of positions includes (1) directors and supervisors, (2) superintendents, (3) principals, (4) classroom teachers, (5) college and normal presidents, (6) educational editors and secretaries, and (7) ex-officio members.

ALABAMA

Abercrombie, John W. (Ex-officio), State Superintendent of Education, Montgomery.
 Bailey, Thelma (Teacher), Albany; Alabama Education Association.
 Bryan, John E. (Principal), 679 Idlewild Circle, Birmingham; Birmingham Teachers Association.
 Carrothers, M. W. (Principal), Selma; Alabama Education Association.
 Cowart, R. W. (Secretary), 415 First National Bank Building, Birmingham; Alabama Education Association.
 Glenn, C. B. (Superintendent), Superintendent of Schools, Birmingham; Birmingham Teachers Association.
 Hanson, Mrs. Bessie N. (Teacher), 902 New Jersey Street, Mobile; Alabama Education Association.
 Hodges, P. W. (Ex-officio), Director of Certification and Placement, State Department of Education, Montgomery; State Director.
 Love, Lizzie (Teacher), 1900 South 11th Avenue, Birmingham; Birmingham Teachers Association.
 McGehee, Laura (Teacher), 101 2nd Avenue, Pratt City, Birmingham; Birmingham Teachers Association.
 McLatchie, Gertrude (Teacher), 458 Valley Road, Fairfield; Birmingham Teachers Association.
 McNeil, Mrs. P. M. (Teacher), 4021 4th Avenue South, Birmingham; Birmingham Teachers Association.
 Murphy, E. P. (Superintendent), Superintendent of Schools, Etowah County, Gadsden; Alabama Education Association.
 Pearson, Cora (Director State Elementary Education), Box 776, Montgomery; Alabama Education Association.
 Riddle, J. I. (Superintendent), Superintendent of Schools, Tuskegee; Alabama Education Association.
 Stubblefield, Mrs. L. B. (Teacher), Chesterfield Apartments, Birmingham; Birmingham Teachers Association.

ALASKA

Shumway, G. A. (Superintendent), Superintendent of Schools, Douglas; Alaska Educational Association.

ARIZONA

Austin, Frederick P. (Superintendent), Superintendent of Schools, Chandler; Arizona State Teachers Association.
 Case, C. O. (Ex-officio), State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Phoenix.
 Cotton, F. A. (President, Teachers College), Flagstaff; Arizona State Teachers Association.
 Chapman, Ruby (Teacher), Rialto Apartments No. 18, Congress; Tucson Teachers Association.
 Daniels, Mrs. Annie E. (Superintendent), County Superintendent of Schools, 79 North Stone Avenue, Tucson; Arizona State Teachers Association.
 Fauley, Sue (Teacher), Mesa; Mesa City Teachers Association.

Fitzgerald, Irene (Teacher), Box 106, Bisbee; Warren District Teachers Association.
 McGuffey, Jennie G. (Teacher), 324 North South 5th, Tucson; Arizona State Teachers Association.
 McRuer, Helen (Teacher), 1211 West Monroe Street, Phoenix; Mesa Teachers Association.
 Matthews, A. J. (President, State Teachers College), Tempe; Arizona State Teachers Association.
 Meyer, Myrtle (Teacher), 1037 North Euclid, Tucson; Arizona State Teachers Association.
 Meyer, Ophelia (Teacher), 1037 North Euclid, Tucson; Arizona State Teachers Association.
 Richey, Thamar (Teacher), 228 West 2nd Street, Tucson; Tucson Teachers Association.
 Wielt, Henry, Jr. (Supervisor), 2145 West Monroe Street, Phoenix; Arizona State Teachers Association.

ARKANSAS

Bull, Mrs. Mamie M. (Teacher), 514 East 8th Street, Little Rock; The Little Rock Classroom Teachers Association.
 Griffey, Annie G. (Ex-officio), 2110 Battery Street, Little Rock; State Director.
 Hill, A. B. (Ex-officio), State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Little Rock.
 Lawson, Miss Willie (Supervisor), State Department of Education, Little Rock; Arkansas Education Association.
 Owens, M. R. (Supervisor), State Department of Education, Little Rock; Arkansas Education Association.
 Pitts, Gertrude (Principal), 915 Cumberland, Little Rock; Arkansas Education Association.
 Ross, A. S. (Supervisor), State Department of Education, Little Rock; Arkansas Education Association.
 Whitcomb, Emma (Teacher), 623 Rock Street, Little Rock; Women Teachers Association.

CALIFORNIA

Abraham, Mirrela (Teacher), 2442 Folsom, Los Angeles; Los Angeles City Teachers Club.
 Adams, Ingeborg (Supervisor), 2321 Russell Street, Berkeley; California Teachers Association.
 Aldrich, Mrs. M. E. (Teacher), 5915 Claremont Avenue, Oakland; Oakland Teachers Association.
 Amrath, Mrs. Mary E. (Teacher), High School of Commerce, San Francisco; San Francisco High School Teachers Association.
 Armitage, A. W. (Teacher), Venice Union Polytechnic High School, Venice; Los Angeles High School Teachers Association.
 Beswick, B. F. (Supervisor), Box 533, Tustin; Orange County Principals and Teachers Association.
 Bingham, Sarah B. (Teacher), John Adams Junior High School, Santa Monica; Santa Monica City Teachers Association.
 Black, Mrs. Florence M. (Teacher), Jefferson School, Santa Monica; Santa Monica City Teachers Association.

- Bohna, Marianna (Teacher), 229 Chester Avenue, Bakersfield; Bakersfield Teachers Club.
- Bowman, Leonard L. (Teacher), University Club, Santa Barbara; Santa Barbara City Teachers Club.
- Brewster, Marjorie (Teacher), Route F, Box 75, Fresno; Fresno City Council of Education.
- Briggs, Clarence R. (Teacher), 3912 Carolina, San Pedro; Los Angeles High School Teachers Association.
- Bright, Beatrice V. (Teacher), 762 Helitrope Drive, Los Angeles; Los Angeles City Teachers Club.
- Broadwell, G. Laurine (Supervisor), 749 Chamber of Commerce Building, Los Angeles; California Teachers Association.
- Brockema, Esther (Teacher), 20 Redondo Avenue, Long Beach; Long Beach City Teachers Club.
- Brown, Evelyn K. (Principal), 5229 Irvington Place, Los Angeles; California Teachers Association.
- Brush, June (Teacher), 454 Locust Avenue, Long Beach; Long Beach City Teachers Club.
- Cameron, Christina B. (Supervisor), 1616 Delaware Street, Berkeley; Richmond Teachers Association.
- Cameron, Mary E. (Teacher), 1616 Delaware Street, Berkeley; California Teachers Association.
- Campbell, Pearl (Supervisor), 1237 East 7th Street, Long Beach; Long Beach City Teachers Club.
- Cauch, F. R. (Teacher), 2316 Valdez Street, Oakland; Oakland Teachers Association.
- Chamberlain, Arthur H. (Secretary), 933 Phelan Building, San Francisco; California Teachers Association.
- Cheyney, Edna K. (Teacher), 503 Alvarado Street, Redlands; California Teachers Association.
- Clifton, A. R. (Superintendent), District Superintendent of Schools, Monrovia; California Teachers Association.
- Cole, Bessie I. (Principal), 460 North 2nd Street, San Jose; California Teachers Association.
- Coward, Beulah B. (Supervisor), 607 Mound Avenue, South Pasadena; Pasadena Teachers Association.
- Cozine, Mrs. Fannie D. (Teacher), 118 Locust Avenue, Long Beach; Long Beach City Teachers Club.
- Craft, Helen (Teacher), 1724 15th Avenue, Oakland; Oakland Teachers Association.
- Davidson, Norabelle (Teacher), Trinity Hotel, Los Angeles; High School Teachers Association.
- Davis, Jehiel S. (Teacher), Box 554, Van Nuys; High School Teachers Association.
- Duncan, Carol (Teacher), 1203 South Central, Glendale; California Teachers Association.
- Ellis, M. Ruth (Teacher), 106 South Lake Avenue, Pasadena; Pasadena Teachers Association.
- Enfield, O. D. (Principal), 1557 West Avenue 47, Los Angeles; Elementary Principals' Association.
- Epperson, John C. (Teacher), 509 Fremont Lane, South Pasadena; Pasadena Teachers Association.
- Farwell, Nina M. (Teacher), 2205 Stuart Street, Berkeley; Berkeley Teachers Association.
- Ferguson, Mrs. A. E. (Principal), 5131 North Raymond Avenue, Pasadena; Ventura County Rural Teachers Association.
- Finger, Marion (Teacher), 819 30th Street, Oakland; Oakland Teachers Association.
- Fishback, M. M. (Teacher), 284 North Glassell Street, Orange; California Teachers Association.
- Fisher, Mrs. Jean Lee (Teacher), 1127 South 10th Street, San Jose; Santa Clara County Teachers Association.
- Fikes, Edith E. (Principal), 472 Ocean Street, Santa Cruz; California Teachers Association.
- Fraser, Anna G. (Ex-officio), 822 Alma Avenue, Oakland; State Director.
- Fraser, Annie Mills (Teacher), 2406 Telegraph Avenue, Berkeley; California Teachers Association.
- Frost, Blanche H. (Teacher), 2044 Santa Clara Avenue, Alameda; Alameda County Educational Association.
- Galpin, Lloy (Teacher), Los Angeles High School, Los Angeles; High School Teachers Association.
- Gaylord, W. L. (Principal), High School, St. Helena; California Teachers Association.
- Gerlach, Juanita L. (Teacher), 1030 Cragmont Avenue, Berkeley; Berkeley Teachers Association.
- Glover, H. B. (Teacher), 434 Marconi Street, Huntington Park; High School Teachers Association.
- Glover, Mrs. Mabel P. (Teacher), 434 Marconi Street, Huntington Park; Los Angeles City Teachers Club.
- Glover, Mrs. Percy F. (Principal), 236 Belmont, Long Beach; Long Beach City Teachers Club.
- Golway, R. E. (Superintendent), County Superintendent of Schools, Sacramento; California Teachers Association.
- Graf, Louise (Principal), 2136 West 28th Street, Los Angeles; Elementary Principals Association.
- Gridley, E. G. (Secretary, Bay Section California Teachers Association), 312 Bacon Building, Oakland; California Teachers Association.
- Griffith, Gladys I. (Teacher), 1809½, Los Palmas, Los Angeles; Los Angeles City Teachers Club.
- Grove, Louise (Teacher), Santa Fe School, Oakland; The Alameda County Educational Association.
- Guerin, Agnes R. (Teacher), 112 South Occidental, Los Angeles; Los Angeles City Teachers Club.
- Gurnee, Marion Terry Baker (Teacher), 2261 West 21st Street, Los Angeles; Los Angeles Kindergarten Club.
- Gwinn, J. M. (Ex-officio), Superintendent of Schools, San Francisco; Board of Trustees.
- Hart, Bessie (Teacher), 4322 Howe Street, Oakland; Alameda County Educational Association.
- Hart, Marion D. (Teacher), 210½ South Reno Street, Los Angeles; High School Teachers Association.
- Helhoff, Lynda Judith (Teacher), 10561 Wilkins Avenue, Sawtelle; Los Angeles City Teachers Club.
- Hiegins, Alfred (Teacher), Orange Union High School, Orange; California Teachers Association.
- Hill, Mrs. Louise Schroder (Teacher), 2871 Brant Street, San Diego; California Teachers Association.
- Houston, Samuel J. (Teacher), 541 Hood Street, Walnut Park; High School Teachers Association.
- Hughes, Mrs. Elizabeth (Teacher), 1203 Montgomery Street, Oroville; California Teachers Association.
- Hunter, Frederick M. (Ex-officio), Superintendent of Schools, Oakland; Past President.

- Huston, W. J. (Supervisor), 3848 Agua Vista Street, Oakland; Oakland Teachers Association.
- Jacobsen, Christine A. (Teacher), 37th Street School, Los Angeles; Los Angeles City Teachers Club.
- Jennings, Mrs. Augusta (Teacher), 160 West 17th Street, Los Angeles; California Teachers Association.
- Johnson, Wilma (Teacher), 1725 San Jose Avenue, Alameda; Alameda Grade Teachers Club.
- Jones, Mrs. Eugenia West (Teacher), 318 South Benton Way, Los Angeles; Los Angeles Kindergarten Club.
- Jones, Marion H. (Teacher), 143 East Valley Road, Santa Barbara; Santa Barbara County Teachers Association.
- Jones, Mary Alice (Teacher), 1802 West 12th, Los Angeles; Los Angeles High School Teachers Association.
- Kelley, Viola S. (Teacher), President, San Francisco Grade Teachers Association, 465 Post Street, San Francisco.
- Keyes, Charles E. (Principal), 2900 50th Avenue, Oakland; California Teachers Association.
- Kindred, Evelyn (Teacher), 504 North Wilton Place, Los Angeles; Los Angeles City Teachers Club.
- Kleinsmid, Bertha A. (Teacher), 1264 Cypress Street, San Diego; San Diego Teachers Association.
- Leflier, Josephine (Teacher), 807 North El Dorado Street, Stockton; California Teachers Association.
- Lewis, Blanche (Teacher), 2439 Russell Street, Berkeley; Berkeley Teachers Association.
- Long, E. W. (Teacher), 4157 Park Boulevard, Oakland; Oakland Teachers Association.
- Long, Mrs. Vivian L. (Superintendent), County Superintendent of Schools, Quincy; California Teachers Association.
- Lundgren, Leonard (Teacher), 20 Jones Street, San Francisco; California Teachers Association.
- Lytle, S. Blanche (Teacher), South Park School, Los Angeles; Los Angeles City Teachers Club.
- MacDonald, John A. (Principal), 650 South Central Avenue, Stockton; Stockton Elementary Teachers Association.
- McCabe, Bessie (Supervisor), 330 South 14th Street, San Jose; Santa Clara County Teachers Association.
- McCahill, Mrs. Mary (Teacher), 4508 Pleasant Valley Court, Oakland; Alameda County Educational Association.
- McClellan, Anabel (Teacher), 126 North Central Avenue, Glendale; Glendale City Teachers Club.
- McLean, Fannie W. (Teacher), Bancroft Way, Berkeley; Berkeley Teachers Association.
- Macintyre, Emma (Teacher), Micheltorena School, Los Angeles; Los Angeles City Teachers Club.
- Maddock, Mrs. Elizabeth (Teacher), 138 Bonito, Long Beach; Long Beach Teachers Club.
- Maland, Mrs. Emma W. (Teacher), 769 Page Street, San Francisco; San Francisco Grade Teachers Association.
- May, Nellie T. (Teacher), 311 South Van Ness Avenue, Pasadena; Pasadena Teachers Association.
- Mendenhall, Mrs. Arbie (Teacher), 201 Milford Street, Glendale; Glendale City Teachers Club.
- Meyer, Marguerite (Teacher), 276 Lee Street, Oakland; Oakland Teachers Association.
- Milliken, Marion (Teacher), 725 65th Street, Oakland; Oakland Teachers Association.
- Montgomery, DeWitt (Superintendent), Superintendent of Schools, Visalia; California Teachers Association.
- Morris, Charles S. (Principal), Modesto Junior College, Modesto; Stanislaus County Teachers Association.
- Mooney, Mary F. (Ex-officio), City Hall, San Francisco; Vice-President.
- Moorhead, Gladys Evelyn (Teacher), 202 Trinity Auditorium Building, Los Angeles; Los Angeles City Teachers Club.
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Evans, F. O. (Superintendent), Superintendent of Schools, Prosser; Washington Education Association.

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Galloway, Frances (Teacher), Box 867, Yakima; Washington Education Association.

Jahnke, Clara L. (Teacher), 1930 Eighth Avenue, Spokane; Spokane Grade Teachers Association.

Kallender, Mrs. Alice (Teacher), Bremerton; Washington Education Association.

Lindesmith, Blanche (Teacher), P. O. Box 248, Seattle; Seattle Grade Teachers Club.

Lynn, Clara (Teacher), 3 Crockett Street, Seattle; Seattle Grade Teachers Club.

McConnell, Mary E. (Teacher), 1623 22nd Avenue, North, Seattle; Washington Education Association.

McMurtrie, Sadie (Teacher), 4210 North 34th, Tacoma; Tacoma Grade Teachers Association.

Moore, Mrs. Anna (Teacher), Box 1253, Tacoma; Tacoma Grade Teachers Association.

Morrow, Margery (Teacher), 634 East 23rd Avenue, Spokane; Spokane Grade Teachers Association.

Mosher, Ida (Teacher), Altadena Apartment, Spokane; Spokane High School Teachers Association.

Nachtsheim, Louise (Teacher), 618 South Sheridan, Tacoma; Tacoma Grade Teachers Association.

Patterson, Rachel (Teacher), 2906 Rockefeller Avenue, Everett; Everett Washington Grade Teachers Association.

Post, Edith (Teacher), 1548 15th Avenue North, Seattle; Seattle High School Teachers League.

Preston, Mrs. Josephine C. (Ex-officio), State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Olympia; Past-President.

Ramsey, Ida (Teacher), 114 West 6th, Aberdeen; Aberdeen Teachers Association.

Perry, Jeannette (Teacher), Franklin High School, Seattle; Seattle High School Teachers League.

Reed, Jessica (Teacher), 413 North Naches Avenue, Yakima; Washington Education Association.

Soules, Jean L. (Teacher), Avalon Hotel, Spokane; Spokane Grade Teachers Association.

Spaulding, Marion (Teacher), 4204 Colby Avenue, Everett; Seattle Grade Teachers Club.

Stinson, Maude M. (Principal), Audubon School, Spokane; Spokane Education Association.

Stoecker, Mamie B. (Teacher), 3900 East Pine Street, Seattle; Seattle Grade Teachers Club.

Westby, Mrs. Mabel (Teacher), 2806 North Union Avenue, Tacoma; Tacoma Grade Teachers Association.

WEST VIRGINIA

Burns, L. W. (Superintendent), Superintendent of Schools, Martinsburg; West Virginia State Education Association.

Fishpaugh, Clara (Teacher), 117 East Main Street, Buckhannon; West Virginia State Education Association.

Graybeal, L. B. (Principal), High School, Switchback; West Virginia State Education Association.

Hickman, J. H. (Ex-officio), Superintendent of Schools, Hinton; State Director.
 Jones, Mrs. E. J. (Superintendent), Superintendent of District Schools, Wheeling; West Virginia State Education Association.
 Neffen, Myra M. (Superintendent), County Superintendent of Schools, Keyser; West Virginia State Education Association.
 Rice, H. A. (Superintendent), Superintendent of Schools, Grafton; West Virginia State Education Association.
 Rosier, Joseph (Normal School President), Fairmont Normal School, Fairmont; West Virginia State Education Association.
 Stewart, Melville (Assistant), State Department of Education, Elkins; West Virginia State Education Association.
 Trent, W. W. (Secretary), West Virginia State Education Association, Charleston; West Virginia State Education Association.
 Weber, S. E. (Superintendent), Superintendent of Schools, Charleston; Charleston Teachers Association.
 Zoll, O. R. (Superintendent), Superintendent of District Schools, Matoaka; West Virginia State Education Association.

WISCONSIN

Bishoff, Dollie (Teacher), Ashland; Wisconsin Teachers Association.
 Callahan, John C. (Ex-officio), State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Madison.
 Doudna, E. G. (Secretary), Wisconsin Teachers Association, 717 Beaver Building, Madison; Acting State Director.
 Gardner, Ethel M. (Teacher), 356—16th Avenue, Milwaukee; Milwaukee Teachers Association.
 Habernicht, Clara (Supervisor), 29 East Wilson Street, Madison; Wisconsin Teachers Association.
 Henderson, H. C. (Teacher-Professor), Department of Education, Milwaukee; Milwaukee State Normal School.
 Hoehn, Hermena (Teacher), 515 South Chicago Street, Kenosha; Kenosha Teachers Club.
 King, Esther (Teacher), 1415 West Sixth Street, Racine; The Teachers Council of Racine.
 Manthy, Clara (Teacher), 977 Island Avenue, Milwaukee; Wisconsin Teachers Association.
 McCormick, Lillian (Teacher), 2023 East 6th Street, Superior; Superior Teachers Club.
 Musgrove, Gertrude (Teacher), 1340 College Avenue, Racine; The Teachers Council of Racine.
 Nelson, Lena (Teacher), 510 Symmonds Street, Kenosha; Kenosha Teachers Club.
 Nichols, Walter (Principal), 451 Kenwood Boulevard, Milwaukee; Milwaukee Principals Association.
 Oltman, Myrtle (Teacher), 207 South 9th Street, La Crosse; Teachers Club of La Crosse.
 Pearce, Carroll G. (Ex-officio), 4315 Lisbon Avenue, Milwaukee; Past-President, Board of Trustees.
 Pokorny, Emily (Teacher), Brayton School, Madison; Wisconsin Teachers Association.
 Ryss, Anna (Supervisor), County Supervisor, Court House, Oshkosh; Wisconsin Supervising Teachers Association.
 Schelféker, G. W. (Teacher), 1612 Mary Street, Marinette; Wisconsin Teachers Association.
 Snyder, C. S. (Principal), High School, Eau Claire; Wisconsin Teachers Association.
 Swenson, Carol E. (Principal), Wausau; Wisconsin Teachers Association.
 Watson, W. S. (Teacher), 107 Cottage Street, Whitewater; Wisconsin Teachers Association.
 Wood, Harrison U. (Principal), 1733 Park Avenue, Racine; The Teachers Council of Racine.

WYOMING

Early, J. J. (Superintendent), Superintendent of Schools, Sheridan; Wyoming State Teachers Association.
 Erwin, S. N. (Superintendent), Superintendent of Schools, Powell; Wyoming State Teachers Association.
 Hamilton, May (Superintendent), County Superintendent of Schools, Casper; Wyoming State Teachers Association.
 McNow, F. L. (Superintendent), Superintendent of Schools, Basin; Wyoming State Teachers Association.
 Thompson, Eunice (Teacher), 107 East 19th Street, Cheyenne; Laramie County Teachers Association.
 Thompson, Mabel F. (Teacher), 854 South Grant, Casper; Wyoming State Teachers Association.
 Williamson, Alice (Teacher), 2021 Warren Avenue, Cheyenne; Laramie County Teachers Association.
 Winter, Mae I. (Teacher), Park School, Casper; Wyoming State Teachers Association.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

Historical Note—In 1906 there was published an index by authors, titles, and subjects to the publications of the National Education Association for its first fifty years, 1856-1906, compiled by Martha Furber Nelson, 211 pages. There is an index in each *Volume of Proceedings*. The December number of *The Journal* for each year includes a title page and index for the year. The current *Volume of Proceedings* and *The Journal* are indexed in the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature*. The Association's publications from 1857 to 1924 are listed in detail in the Proceedings of 1924, pages 1041-1060. It should be noted that the early proceedings of the Department of Superintendence were published by the Bureau of Education, not by the Association.

TABLE OF PUBLICATIONS, 1925-1926¹

Title 1	When published 2	Number of pages in each 3	Number of copies printed 4	Total number of pages 5
JOURNAL of the The National Education Association	Oct., 1925 June, 1926 Feb.,	68 76	1,300,000	89,560,000
Preprints and reprints from the JOURNAL				43,850
Addresses and Proceedings	Nov., 1925	1104	6,000	6,624,000
Program of Indianapolis Meeting	June, 1925	48	10,000	480,000
Official Manual for Delegates	June, 1925	70	1,600	112,000
Report of the Secretary	June, 1925	39	2,000	78,000
Report of the Executive Committee	June, 1925	11	1,400	15,400
Report of the Auditors (Treasurers)	June, 1925	18	1,500	27,000
Report of Teacher Rating	June, 1925	18	2,500	45,000
Collected Reports (Indianapolis)	June, 1925	48	2,000	96,000
Tenure in Teachers' Colleges	June, 1925	20	2,000	40,000
Reprint 1922 Health Education Report— Health Improvement in Rural Schools	Nov., 1925	54	5,000	270,000
Members of the Educational Press Association	April, 1926	16	4,000	64,000
Program for American Education Week	Aug., 1925	6	40,000	240,000
List of Publications of the National Education Association	Nov., 1925	4	5,000	20,000
Research Bulletin Volume III, No. 3	Sept., 1925	32	13,000	416,000
Research Bulletin Volume III, Nos. 4 & 5	Jan., 1926	92	23,000	2,116,000
Research Bulletin Volume IV, Nos. 1 & 2	May, 1926	96	16,000	1,536,000
The Education Bill (Norton)	Sept., 1925	64	20,000	1,280,000
Information about the Research Bulletins	1926	4	500	2,000
Can You Afford to be Without It?	1926	4	8,500	34,000
Reprint Research Bulletin—Volume III, Nos. 1 & 2		72	2,500	180,000
Annual Report—Department of Classroom Teachers	Nov., 1925	24	1,000	24,000
Report on Evaluation of Classroom Instruction	June, 1925	32	3,000	96,000
N. E. A. Booklet of Information	Aug., Oct., & Jan.,	16	10,500	168,000
General Practice in Kindergarten Education in the United States	June, 1925	160	2,000	320,000
Constitution of Department of Classroom Teachers	Aug., 1925	4	1,000	4,000
Department of Classroom Teachers—Information	Nov., 1925	2	6,000	12,000
Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals—Volume 5, No. 1	Oct., 1925	64	4,500	288,000
Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals—Volume 5, No. 2	Jan., 1926	64	4,500	288,000

¹ Figures do not include Journal of the Department of Rural Education and certain other material published outside the Headquarters Office.

Title 1	When published 2	Number of pages in each 3	Number of copies printed 4	Total number of pages 5
Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals—Volume 5, No. 3.....	April, 1926	64	4,500	288,000
Fifth Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals.....	April, 1926	304	6,000	1,824,000
Department of Elementary School Principals—Information.....	Sept., 1925	4	75,000	300,000
Pamphlet on the Education Bill.....	Feb., 1926	8	3,000	24,000
Proposal for Education Bill.....	July, 1925	8	10,000	80,000
Senate Bill, S. 291.....	Feb., 1926	8	20,000	160,000
Leaflet on Education Bill (MacCracken).....	June, 1925	12	10,000	120,000
Leaflet on Education Bill (Ballou).....	Aug., 1925	4	20,000	80,000
Leaflet on Education Bill (Payson Smith).....	Aug., 1925	4	20,000	80,000
Proposal for a Bill (Strayer).....	July, 1925	12	20,000	240,000
Catechism on the Bill.....	Dec., 1925	8	20,000	160,000
Why Support the Education Bill.....	1925	12	20,000	240,000
Department of Superintendence—Fourth Yearbook.....	Feb., 1926	520	12,000	6,240,000
Department of Superintendence—Reprint of Third Yearbook.....	May, 1926	424	5,000	2,120,000
Official Program of the Washington Convention.....	Feb., 1926	48	15,500	744,000
Preprint of pages 7-22.....	Feb., 1926	14	3,500	49,000
Official Report of the Washington Convention.....	March, 1926	256	5,000	1,280,000
Department of Superintendence—Information.....	March, 1926	4	10,000	40,000
Department of Superintendence—Leaflet Reprint.....	Jan., 1926	4	5,000	20,000
Announcements and diagrams of exhibits (gray).....	June, 1925	8	550	4,400
Announcements and diagrams of exhibits (brown).....	Feb., 1926	8	550	4,400
The Washington Exhibit (blue).....	Feb., 1926	20	10,500	210,000
Life Enlistments.....	Oct., 1925	6	20,000	120,000
Life Membership Invitation.....	March, 1926	4	10,000	40,000
Membership Folder, 1926.....	Oct., 1925	8	735,000	5,880,000
Teachers Home Bulletin No. 2.....	Dec., 1925	8	10,000	80,000
Liberty Bell Rings Again.....	Jan., 1926	8	60,407	483,256
Drama of American Independence.....	March, 1926	176	15,000	2,640,000
Sesquicentennial Pageants.....	March, 1926	8	50,000	400,000
Circulars and multigraph work.....				1,251,950
Total.....			2,695,507	129,682,256

Related National Associations

THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION is all-inclusive in its membership and interests. Its departments represent a wide variety of educational activities, and allied organizations meet regularly in connection with its two great conventions. The Association encourages the heartiest cooperation with every organization seeking to advance education in any way. On the following pages are brief accounts of several national organizations which are doing significant work in their various fields.

AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

THE AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION was organized in 1918 to meet national needs in time of war and will always seek to render patriotic service. The general object of the Council is to promote and carry out cooperative action in matters of common interest to the associations represented. It is understood that such matters will lie mainly in the field of university and college work and in related educational fields. It will also encourage international cooperation in educational matters. The membership of the Council consists of three classes of members—constituent, associate, and institutional. The constituent members consist of national educational organizations and such other bodies having similar interests, numbering at present 18. The associate members consist of such organizations having interests related to the work of the Council as may from time to time be elected by the Council. There are at present 14 such members. The institutional members consist of colleges, universities, and professional and technical schools of similar grade, and of other organizations of high standing that carry on higher educational activities or cooperate with educational institutions in improving instruction. There are at present 201 institutional members.

The Council maintains a Division of International Educational Relations which, in cooperation with the Institute of International Education, the Committee on American University Union and numerous other agencies operating in this field, devotes its energies to the formulation of effective foreign policies and simplification of administrative machinery for their realization. David A. Robertson is in charge of this work. The Council, through its Committee on American University Union, also maintains offices in Paris and London.

The Council has received a grant for financing the study of the teaching of modern foreign languages, and gratifying progress has been made on this study to date.

A new committee on personnel methods has been appointed and under a special grant L. B. Hopkins has been gathering basic data concerning personnel methods in typical universities. This study looks toward the formulation of plans for extensive cooperative experiments in personnel methods on the side of appraising student ability, guidance, rating, and records.

Another important project of the Council deals with the problem of defining specific objectives of education. C. E. Hewitt is in charge of this work and is now negotiating with a number of industrial organizations to secure their cooperation. There has been developed a model form of job specification which apparently satisfies all requirements of both industry and schools better than any other form yet devised. Such specifications for a wide variety of jobs have been collected and are being studied to determine what information of value to curriculum revision they yield.

Since 1924 the Council has been publishing and distributing a composite psychological examination for college freshmen, edited by L. L. Thurstone.

This test blank may be purchased from the Council. One hundred and ninety-four colleges and universities have used approximately 68,000 copies of the 1925 edition of the test during the past year.

To meet the need of college presidents in finding men for their faculties, the American Council on Education, on the earnest recommendation of numerous prominent educators and educational organizations, has established a college and university personnel register. This is a central, non-commercial bureau of registration and transfer for college teachers. No fees are charged for registration and no commissions exacted. All delegated college officials are cordially invited to examine the files personally. Service by mail is free to all institutional members of the American Council on Education; but the selection and compilation of these lists requires so much time and labor that a fee of ten dollars per position is charged non-member institutions for service by mail.

The Council publishes a quarterly bulletin entitled *The Educational Record*, which is distributed without charge to all members of the Council. The editorial policy has been to include in the *Record* only matters of wide national interest and those which have bearing on the principal purposes of the Council itself. Seven volumes of the *Record* have already been published.

The officers of the Council for the year 1926-27 are as follows:

Chairman: Virginia C. Gildersleeve, Barnard College, representing the American Association of University Women.

First Vice-Chairman: Herman V. Ames, University of Pennsylvania, representing the Association of American Universities.

Second Vice-Chairman: Kenyon L. Butterfield, Michigan State College of Agriculture and Applied Science, representing the Association of Land Grant Colleges.

Secretary: R. M. Hughes, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio, representing the National Association of State Universities.

Treasurer: Corcoran Thom, American Security & Trust Company, Washington, D. C.

Director: C. R. Mann.

Assistant Director: David A. Robertson.

Assistant to the Director: C. E. Hewitt.

The offices of the American Council on Education are at 26 Jackson Place N. W., Washington, D. C.

AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION

THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION was founded in 1876 as the immediate result of a three days' conference in connection with the Centennial exhibition. Two of the men prominent in its organization were C. A. Cutter and Melvil Dewey.

A charter for the incorporation of this organization was granted by the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, December 10, 1879.

Shortly after the meeting of 1890 on account of the need for a permanent fund for publishing the proceedings of the Association, the Endowment Fund was established, consisting of receipts from life memberships and all gifts for general endowment purposes.

The purpose of the American Library Association, as taken from its handbook is:

To foster the development of libraries and promote the use of books.

To give through its headquarters and committees advisory assistance to all who are interested in library establishment, extension, and development.

To maintain an employment bureau which will serve librarians seeking positions, and libraries which need librarians and assistants.

To attract promising young men and women who have the necessary personal and educational qualifications to library work as a profession.

To hold conferences for the discussion of library topics, and to publish the conference papers and proceedings for members.

To publish books, periodicals, and pamphlets which will aid in the establishment of libraries, and which will aid trustees and librarians in rendering library service.

To raise the professional standards, dignify library service, and improve library salaries.

To assist in making books a vital, working, educational force in American life, and in making libraries easily accessible to all people.

Membership—Any person or institution interested in library work may become a member upon payment of dues. The total membership in 1925 was 6745.

There are nine sections of the American Library Association as follows:

Agricultural Libraries Section.

Catalog Section.

Children's Librarians Section.

College and Reference Section.

Lending Section.

Professional Training Section.

School Libraries Section.

Training Class Section.

Trustees Section.

The national societies affiliated with the American Library Association are the American Association of Law Libraries; the League of Library Commissions; the National Association of State Libraries; and the Special Libraries Association.

The national association is supplemented by state associations and they in turn are supplemented by library clubs.

The most important of the association's numerous publications and periodicals are—

The A. L. A. Catalog, an annotated dictionary list of several thousand volumes useful in guiding readers in the choice of the best books on a given subject.

The Booklist, 10 numbers a year, the American Library Association official book selection magazine. Each number lists and annotates from 175 to 200 current books, giving also classification number, subject headings, Library of Congress card number, and an author and title index.

New Guide to Reference Books. A full index shows where to find in the various reference books many topics of general interest to which there is ordinarily no clue. Recommended for purchase by all libraries having five thousand volumes or more. Indispensable as a textbook in reference study courses.

Graded List of Books for Children. A list of children's books for every school and every library. It represents the best judgment of both teachers and librarians. The entry for each of the books listed (about 850) gives author, title, publisher, price, descriptive note, and grades for which the book is suited.

The titles are arranged in three groups: Section A, grades 1-3, Section B, grades 4-6, Section C, grades 7-9. A list of sixty reference books (grades 1-9) and a list of valuable books now out of print are also included. Complete title and subject indexes.

Books for the High School Library. A basic list of books which was compiled by a joint committee of the National Education Association and the American Library Association.

A. L. A. Manual of Library Economy.

A. L. A. Bulletin and Proceedings—Handbook of the American Library Association. Includes a complete list of members, with addresses.

The officers for the year 1925-1926 are:

President—Charles F. D. Belden, Boston Public Library, Boston, Mass.

First Vice-President—Elizabeth Claypool Earl, Indiana Library and Historical Department, Indianapolis, Ind. (Address, Muncie, Ind.)

Second Vice-President—Theodore W. Koch, Northwestern University Library, Evanston, Ill.

Treasurer—Edward D. Tweedell, The John Crerar Library, Chicago, Ill.

The headquarters offices of the American Library Association are at 86 East Randolph Street, Chicago, Ill.

THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS was conceived at the Detroit meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association in 1916. The first meeting was held February 24, 1916 with the purpose of developing professional spirit, studying curriculum and problems of administration, and looking forward to certain standards and tests of efficiency for high-school subjects as a basis for survey work.

Interest in this new movement was increased at the meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools held in March, 1916, at Chicago. A meeting was called in April, 1916 to perfect an organization. Seventy-eight principals representing seven of the middle west states gathered at Chicago where a permanent organization was formed.

A movement is under way to establish the National Association of Secondary School Principals as a department of the National Education Association under the plan followed in the case of the Department of Elementary School Principals and the Department of Teachers Colleges. For record of these negotiations see *Proceedings*, 1925: 1055; 1926: 267.

Membership—Any principal or executive head of a secondary school may become a member of the National Association of Secondary School Principals upon the payment of two dollars.

The Association holds one meeting a year. This annual meeting is held at the time and place of the meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association.

The Association publishes a yearbook, ten volumes of which have been issued to date.

The last meeting of the Association was held in Washington, D. C. in February, 1926.

Business relations with the National Association of Secondary School Principals are handled through H. V. Church, secretary, Cicero, Ill.

THE NATIONAL CONGRESS OF PARENTS AND TEACHERS

THE NATIONAL CONGRESS OF PARENTS AND TEACHERS—chartered under the laws of the District of Columbia—is a voluntary organization actively engaged in certain special lines of educational work. All those interested in its objects may become members.

On February 17, 1897, it was organized under the name of the National Congress of Mothers by a group of women led by Mrs. Theodore W. Birney and Phoebe A. Hearst. The organizers, both men and women, persons of affairs, representing the philanthropic, religious, social, and political interests of the nation, realized that while mothers have ever determined the character of young children, they have failed, lacking guidance and means of cooperation, to exert the influence upon the race which might be possible were conditions beyond the home brought under at least partial control. It was the original aim of the Congress of Mothers to secure such control and to carry mother-love and mother-thought into all that concerns or touches childhood in home, school, church, or state.

The work of the Congress expanded rapidly. Branches were organized in many states, and a magazine was established. Prominent men, including Theodore Roosevelt, were proud to accept places on the advisory council. Within a decade Mrs. Birney's "beautiful dream," regarded by many at

first as Utopian beyond hope of realization, had been outrun and the National Congress of Mothers had become a powerful influence throughout America.

Policy—From the first it has been the policy of the Congress to reach in a helpful and intimate way the two social institutions exercising the most direct influence upon young children, the home and the school. To this end it early entered upon a nation-wide campaign for the organization of parent-teacher associations. The movement proved popular and in order that it might be promoted and directed more effectively there was created within the Congress, in the year 1907, a special department in charge of this work, and the year following, the name of the organization was changed to the National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations, to include this new phase of its development. The Congress has been active in all movements aiming to promote the interests of children and youth. It is organized by departments and committees for effective work in more than a score of related fields, such as citizenship, child welfare legislation, juvenile protection, schools, parent-teacher associations, study circles, country life, students' loan funds, kindergarten extension, illiteracy, home education, and economics, recreation, child hygiene, and development. Branches have been formed in forty-seven states, in the District of Columbia, and in Hawaii, with associations in Nevada and Alaska, with a total membership of one million.

In 1924, owing to the rapid increase of the number of men interested in the movement, the name was changed to its present form, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers.

Headquarters—In 1897 headquarters were established for the Congress in the Washington Loan and Trust Building, where they remained until the war, when the organization purchased the valuable property at 1314 Massachusetts Avenue, and, in connection with the War Camp Community Service, maintained a United Service Club for the enlisted men. After the war the house, being too large for the ordinary uses of the Congress, was sold, and most convenient and satisfactory quarters were secured in the home of the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street Northwest.

Membership—State—When a state has at least twenty local organizations belonging to the National Congress, with a membership aggregating at least five hundred, the National Congress organizes them into a state branch, whose object is to promote the objects and interests of the national body, and thereafter all members in that state join the national through the state congress. Each state branch is entitled to send to the annual convention its president, recording and corresponding secretaries, and treasurer, or their alternates, and one delegate for every thousand members in good standing at the end of the fiscal year, exclusive of such members of the board of managers as may be resident in the state, and who are national delegates *ex officio*.

Local—All local associations in membership are entitled to send to the annual convention visiting delegates, who may take part in discussion in the general sessions, but are not entitled to make motions or to vote.

Active members receive all free literature issued by the Congress, when application has been made for it through the state branch.

Program of service—The objects of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers are, as stated in the Bylaws:

1. To promote child welfare in home, school, church, and community; to raise the standards of home life; to secure more adequate laws for the care and protection of women and children.

2. To bring into closer relation the home and the school, that parents and teachers may cooperate intelligently in the training of the child; to develop between educators and the general public such united effort as will secure for every child the highest advantages in physical, mental, moral, and spiritual education.

The Congress issues a variety of publications for use by local branches including program material, study outline, music pageants, and miscellaneous material.

The last meeting of the Congress was held at Atlanta, Ga., in May, 1926.

NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF EDUCATION

THE NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF EDUCATION grew out of the National Herbart Society for the Scientific Study of Education which was organized at the Denver meeting of the National Education Association in 1895 "to study and investigate and discuss important problems of education. Its members do not subscribe to the doctrine of any one leader, but seek for fair and thorough discussion." In February, 1901, reorganization was effected and the word "Herbart" omitted. The new National Society for the Scientific Study of Education thus created was organized "for the aggressive discussion and spread of educational doctrines." At the Chicago meeting in 1909, there was adopted a revised constitution which contained among other things, provision for changing the name of the society by omitting the word "scientific." In February, 1926, commemorating a quarter century of service, the society published a booklet containing historical notes on organization and development, lists of officers and meetings in the twenty-five years, and a summary of the fifty-one parts of the twenty-five yearbooks with a list of contributors to these yearbooks.

The last meeting of the Society was held in Washington, D. C., in February, 1926.

All business matters pertaining to the National Society for the Study of Education are handled through the secretary, Guy M. Whipple, Danvers, Mass.

A list of publications of the society since its organization follows:

PUBLICATIONS OF THE NATIONAL HERBART SOCIETY

- 1895, vol. 1, First Yearbook.
- 1895, vol. 1, First Supplement to First Yearbook.
- 1895, vol. 1, Second Supplement to First Yearbook.
- 1896, vol. 2, Second Yearbook.
- 1896, vol. 2, Supplement to Second Yearbook.
- 1897, vol. 3, Third Yearbook.
- 1897, vol. 3, Ethical Principles Underlying Education, John Dewey. Reprinted from Third Yearbook.
- 1897, vol. 3, Supplement to Third Yearbook.
- 1898, vol. 4, Fourth Yearbook.
- 1898, vol. 4, Supplement to Fourth Yearbook.
- 1899, vol. 5, Fifth Yearbook.
- 1899, vol. 5, Supplement to Fifth Yearbook.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF EDUCATION

- 1902, vol. 1, First Yearbook, Part I, Teaching of History.
- 1902, vol. 1, First Yearbook, Part II, Geography.
- 1903, vol. 2, Second Yearbook, Part I, The Course of Study in History in the Common School.
- 1903, vol. 2, Second Yearbook, Part II, Relation of Theory to Practice in Education.
- 1904, vol. 3, Third Yearbook, Part I, The Relation of Theory to Practice in the Education of Teachers.
- 1904, vol. 3, Third Yearbook, Part II, Nature Study.
- 1905, vol. 4, Fourth Yearbook, Part I, The Education and Training of Secondary Teachers.
- 1905, vol. 4, Fourth Yearbook, Part II, Vocational Subjects in the High School Curriculum.
- 1906, vol. 5, Fifth Yearbook, Part I, On the Teaching of English.
- 1906, vol. 5, Fifth Yearbook, Part II, Certification of Teachers.
- 1907, vol. 6, Sixth Yearbook, Part I, Vocational Studies for College Entrance.
- 1907, vol. 6, Sixth Yearbook, Part II, The Kindergarten and Its Relation to Elementary Education.
- 1908, vol. 7, Seventh Yearbook, Part I, The Relation of Superintendents and Principals to Training and Improvement of Teachers.
- 1908, vol. 7, Seventh Yearbook, Part II, The Coordination of the Kindergarten and the Elementary School.
- 1909, vol. 8, Eighth Yearbook, Parts I and II, Education with Reference to Sex.
- 1910, vol. 9, Ninth Yearbook, Part I, Health and Education.
- 1910, vol. 9, Ninth Yearbook, Part II, The Nurse in Education.
- 1911, vol. 10, Tenth Yearbook, Part I, The City School as a Community Center.
- 1911, vol. 10, Tenth Yearbook, Part II, The Rural School as a Community Center.
- 1912, vol. 11, Eleventh Yearbook, Part I, Industrial Education.
- 1912, vol. 11, Eleventh Yearbook, Part II, Agricultural Education in Secondary Schools.
- 1913, vol. 12, Twelfth Yearbook, Part I, The Supervision of City Schools.
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